6-1997

A Structured Approach to Training and Development Programs for Business and Organizational Leaders

Thomas M. Burns
University of Massachusetts Boston

A STRUCTURED APPROACH TO TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR BUSINESS AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERS

A Thesis Presented

by

THOMAS M. BURNS

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies, University of Massachusetts Boston,
in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

June 1997

Critical and Creative Thinking Program

A STRUCTURED APPROACH TO TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR BUSINESS AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERS

A Thesis Presented

by

THOMAS M. BURNS

Approved as to style and content by:

[redacted]

John R. Murray, Assistant Professor
Chairperson of Committee

[redacted]

Steven Schwartz, Associate Professor
Member

[redacted]

Scott A. Kerr, CEO, Virtual Development Group, Inc.
Member

[redacted]

Delores Gallo, Program Director
Critical & Creative Thinking Program

ABSTRACT

A STRUCTURED APPROACH TO TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR BUSINESS AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERS

June 1997

Thomas M. Burns, B.M., Wisconsin Conservatory of Music
M.A., University of Massachusetts Boston

Directed by Professor John R. Murray

This paper addresses and integrates two issues. Its first premise is that training and development programs in most organizations are often poorly planned or randomly implemented, a condition which undermines much of the potential benefit these programs may offer. Secondly, the paper argues that the development and application of critical and creative thinking skills, traditionally applied only in educational settings, can also serve businesses in very important ways.

Towards the integration of these two issues, a six-stage model is presented that can serve to coordinate the process of personnel development in organizations. It is highlighted by the identification and application of a range of cognitive skills. While the model is primarily progressive, suggesting that certain learning should precede other learning, there is also a more holistic or systemic aspect to it, realizing that work at one level must influence and be influenced by work on other levels. These points are expanded upon throughout the paper.

After an introductory chapter discuses the background and general goals of the paper, each of the next six chapters discusses in detail one of the stages from the model. Stage 1 is centered on self-development and a greater appreciation of an individual's thinking, learning and behavioral preferences. Stage 2 introduces interpersonal communication issues associated primarily with dyadic contexts. Then Stage 3 focuses on communication issues in special circumstances, namely those related to matters of diversity as it is understood to include perspectives of race, ethnicity, gender, age, sexual preference, and physical disability. Stage 4 deals with ideas associated with group process and team development. Trainings at this Stage 4 level become pivotal and critical as a foundation for the more complex operations common to most organizations. In Stage 5, the contextual focus expands to include organizational departments or divisions. And finally, Stage 6 addresses intervention programs that are concerned with entire organizations. A summary is presented in Chapter 8 and suggestions are made for further study and exploration.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank each member of my advisory committee for his concientious effort on my behalf. In particular, I want to thank Professor Steven Schwartz for his helpful insights into matters of structure and continuity, and Scott Kerr for his contribution to the clarity and applicability of my ideas. Most of all, I wish to thank Professor John Murray for his tireless encouragement and enthusiasm. His efforts more than any other's helped me to find meaning in this undertaking and keep the process moving forward when my own vision would become clouded. On a more personal level, I wish to gratefully acknowledge the unwavering support and encouragement of my wife, Anne. It is no exaggeration to say that throughout this process her burden has been greater than my own, and she has borne it with her customary patience, trust and optimism.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

No matter what words they use, [today's managers] are all really describing different facets of the same fundamental purpose: to marry the individual development of every person in the organization with superior economic performance.[1]

Random, uncoordinated learning by individuals has no significant impact on the effectiveness of the organization.[2]

The Challenge to Organizations:

In today's business climate where the only constant is change, the challenge to business leaders is how to meet this latest and most technological phase in cultural, indeed, human evolution. Many approaches have been tried, "but the basic goal has been the same: to make fundamental changes in how business is conducted in order to cope with the new, more challenging market environment" (Kotter, 1995, p. 59). As the new century and millennium approach, most business organizations find themselves operating in a world characterized by unprecedented change, competition and complexity. From the perspective of organizations, the dynamics of change are both internal and external. For example, a recent survey of *Wall Street Journal* articles from calendar year 1996 revealed nearly 3000 stories dealing with the issue of corporate mergers. This dizzying pace of corporate in-breeding shows no sign of abating any time soon but the cumulative effects leave scars that should not, must not, be ignored.[3]

At the same time, a wide range of external developments, including political, environmental, demographic, and, perhaps most of all, technological are giving rise to influences and opportunities heretofore unimagined in most industries. Business organizations everywhere are attempting to adapt to these changing circumstances with all manner of response, trying to stay not just in business, but competitive. But while it is quite clear that old models of corporate structure and practice are increasingly ineffective in this extremely dynamic time, it is less clear what form, or forms, new organizational designs will take.

Where there is need there is opportunity, and companies of all sizes have attempted to meet these opportunities with all manner of adaptive response. The most common of these are familiar to most people, even to the point of becoming household words: corporate mergers and acquisitions, company downsizing, and restructuring. A *Wall Street Journal* article from January 25, 1996 (p. 1) notes that more than half of America's fastest-growing companies have expanded through acquisitions or are planning a new business buy over the next three years. Unfortunately, these corporate methodologies tend to prioritize the interests of executives and stockholders over the needs and expectations of most workers. In the midst of this free-for-all, job security has become more than an anachronism. It is an oxymoron.

Thankfully, there is some theoretical light at the end of this tumultuous tunnel. In an effort to recast these changes in a more optimistic, if somewhat opportunistic light, numerous models for continued organizational growth and development have been posited by academic theorists and organizational development (OD) practitioners alike. Among

these, some of the most frequently encountered efforts include: strategic planning, re-engineering, the introduction of TQM (Total Quality Management principles), and more recently, the evolution of the Learning Organization[4] . Stressing the value of worker knowledge and potential creativity, these models tend to be more humanistic in their orientation, balancing the shifting needs of corporations with the likewise evolving interests of workers at all levels of a company's structure.

Indeed, in the rapidly growing body of literature covering these varied approaches to organizational restructuring, certain themes emerge with greater and greater frequency, themes that bode an increasing awareness of the value of human potential. First, in many companies there is a shift of emphasis occurring, sometimes subtle sometimes not so subtle, from the traditional business objective of increased profits for a select few, to increased benefit to all parties associated with a particular business or organization. Under this new paradigm, stakeholders would include all workers, investors, vendors, and customers. In some cases the concept of stakeholders is being broadened to include all members of a community, even those who may have no direct dealing with a particular enterprise[5]. According to this model, as organizational leaders contemplate their future, with increasing frequency they are coming to appreciate the mutual benefit of recognizing and supporting the growth and development of all people affected by their activities, those within the organization and those outside.

A second theme evident in the literature is an extension of the first. It is a recognition of the value of, indeed the need for, skill of a higher order than mere productivity and obedience. In this new paradigm, workers are no longer viewed as

replaceable components of a machine-like operation. No longer is their most valued contribution of a strictly mechanical nature. After all, we have learned that machines married to computers can accomplish mechanical tasks faster and more accurately than human beings ever could. But what humans have to offer that can not (yet!) be duplicated by machines, however technologically advanced, is the ability to think and learn in ways we might consider to be reflective, generative, imaginative or even intuitive[6].

Consider the following observations. In their book Competing for the Future, (1994) Hamel and Prahalad suggest that "most companies have already done much of the hard work of catching up on cost, quality, speed, and flexibility" (p. x). In other words, the more mechanistic applications to organizational change are in place. Leaders must now turn their attention to growth. But in the face of today's challenges, "growth is not the product of [another] deal, it is the product of foresight. In turn, foresight is not the product of perspicuity, but of unconventional, out-of-the-box thinking" (p. xi). Another writer, John Kotter, addresses the need for organizational leaders to embrace a philosophy of "lifelong learning." In his book entitled Leading Change (1996), he offers a list of "Mental Habits That Support Lifelong Learning" (p. 183). And it reads like a transplant from an academic text on the subject of "critical thinking":

- *Risk Taking:* Willingness to push oneself out of comfort zones
- *Humble self-reflection:* Honest assessment of successes and failures, especially the latter
- *Solicitation of opinions:* Aggressive collection of information and ideas from others
- *Careful listening:* Propensity to listen to others
- *Openness to new ideas:* Willingness to view life with an open mind

In fact, as political, social and technological changes continue to unfold, the ability, aptitude and willingness to learn, and learn continuously, may be the single most valued asset workers have in today's market. Adaptability, creativity, problem solving, critical analysis, planning, innovation, the list goes on. But a rose by any other name is still a rose, and the possession of good learning skills, known by whatever rubric, is becoming one of the most highly sought after qualities among employees in all industries.

Our whole concept of learning is changing because much of what we learn today can become obsolete within a few years. As recently as 20 years ago a college graduate might expect to leave academe and enter the world of business with sufficient foundation of skill to carry him or her through most of a life's career. Today, even graduates of advanced study programs will likely find that a good deal of their foundational training has become obsolete within 5 years. As a result, continuous learning and training have become the order of the day for any employee, whether production worker, manager or high level executive, anyone who wishes to maintain a place in emerging organizational environments.

The hierarchic structure and relationships which, for better or worse, our parents could reasonably take for granted in their working past are fast disappearing (some might say not fast enough!). Today, everyone's role in organizational life is subject to question, re-evaluation and re-definition, and as evidenced in the *Wall Street Journal* articles cited above, the very existence of a particular business, corporation or service is subject to change without notice. Workers at all levels are finding an unnerving environment of uncertainty and constant challenge. Surviving in this environment will require skills and

expertise beyond any of the technical know-how that can be acquired either in school or in most traditional business training programs. People must become as flexible in their learning as are the demands of the business reality in which they find themselves.

The Problem:

Business leaders might point out that they already spend millions of dollars each year on training programs of all kinds. But research conducted by the American Society of Training and Development in conjunction with the United States Department of Labor indicates that organizations in the US currently spend, on average, only 1.4 percent of payroll on training. In contrast, their foreign counterparts operating in the US average 5 to 7 percent of payroll on training, as do some of America's most progressive and competitive companies such as Motorola and Xerox (Brown, et al. 1994. p.217).

Ironically, there is really no shortage of available training programs, especially from outside sources. What seems to be lacking is a way of integrating these programs, of coordinating them in such a way that each has a meaningful relationship to the other. In the current environment, a company might make a genuine effort to meet contemporary needs by offering programs such as Stress Management, Diversity Awareness, Team Building, or Leadership, and still not see any significant improvement in the overall level of communication or productivity from its workers. Why does this happen?

One reason might be that business leaders tend to see these types of programs as separate issues, not as integrated steps towards the development of a greater whole. If there is a single glaring fault discernible among companies that engage some form of

change management, it is this profound myopia regarding the human impact of the change process in general, and the requirements of workforce training and development in particular. Such short-sightedness is made all the more disturbing because it is voluntary. Decision makers choose to approach long-term problems with short term attitudes and solutions, and the results are predictably disappointing. As Kotter points out, "the change process goes through a series of phases that, in total, usually require a considerable length of time. Skipping steps creates only the illusion of speed and never produces a satisfying result" (1995, p. 59).

In a series of interviews conducted as part of my research for this paper (see Appendix), I asked a number of OD practitioners what obstacles they found to be most common in their efforts to introduce change interventions or learning interventions to an organization. Without exception, they talked about some manner of poor, or even non-existent, planning. Traditionally schooled organizational leaders consistently fail to consider the real benefit of human resource development. For those steeped in this archaic but still prevailing mind set, short-term profits are more important than long-term investment in human assets.

From these interviews, a most distressing example of this short-sightedness is offered by M.B., a specialist in diversity training interventions for large corporations. He contends that most companies are not genuinely interested in cultivating a greater sense of mutual respect and appreciation among its culturally diverse workers. Rather, they are primarily interested in avoiding the public specter of lawsuits based on accusations of racism or sexual harassment. I found this sadly jaded view echoed in a brief editorial from

the February 10, 1997 issue US News and World Report. Author John Leo cited the comment of Clifford Alexander, former Secretary of the Army, now serving as the attorney representing R. R. Donnelley & Sons (a large printing company) in a racism suit. As an African-American himself, Mr. Clifford's comments are particularly poignant: "Diversity training is generally nonsense" (p. 20).

While no program of learning can alleviate all manifestations of the doubt and distrust we hold for ourselves and others, I believe that some understanding of the process and progress of learning that we experience in the area of self-development and interpersonal interaction is fundamental to both personal and organizational success. The application of this learning in the workplace through well-planned and conscientiously applied programs is critical if there is any hope of tapping into the creative potential present in the minds and hearts of all workers.

Towards a Solution:

In this paper I will offer a model that can serve as a framework for the coordinated implementation of various types of learning interventions common to most businesses today. Through the presentation of the model I describe the basis for my position that by placing much greater emphasis on planning and integrating training programs, the effectiveness of all such interventions could be significantly improved. It is my position that as business leaders begin to appreciate the inter-relatedness of all types of change interventions and the learning that must accompany these efforts, the effectiveness of these programs will be greatly enhanced and the leaders' understanding of the organic nature of

their organizations will grow. Understanding the inter-dependencies of various systems at work both inside and outside an organization is becoming increasingly important as markets for all types of products and services become more dynamic and complex. Indeed, this "systems thinking" (Senge, 1990) has become a hallmarks of one of the more promising approaches to organizational change mentioned earlier, the Learning Organization.

The model itself comprises six Types of learning, each successive one representing a higher degree of complexity than the previous one. In addition, I have identified six discussion points relative to this typology of learning and applied them consistently to each of the six Types (see Tables 1-1 and 1-2). First there is the *relational context*. All learning is a relational event. At its most primal level, we learn by interacting cognitively with some stimulus. At its most sophisticated level, we learn by interacting cognitively with some stimulus. In other words, the process of learning, simple or complex, always involves some relationship between subject and object. In this paper I am concerned with a particular series of relational contexts that describe a progression from self, through various interpersonal situations, to an organization as a whole.

The second aspect identifies various *symptoms* or behaviors that indicate the need for learning relative to a specific Type. The third aspect is called *learning issues*, and identifies subject matter or content associated with each successive Type of learning. Fourth, I suggest *program topics* that might typically fit into each Type. This list is not meant to be comprehensive, but rather suggestive of the categories of topics that can be explored at each level. *Competencies and practices*, the fifth aspect, describes examples

of skills and abilities relevant to each particular stage of learning. Again, this is not intended to be an exhaustive list. Finally, the *role and influence of critical and creative thinking* are examined. It is my belief that greater awareness of cognitive processes can facilitate learning in any context. In addition, as cognitive skills are increasingly valued in the workplace, their conscious development becomes increasingly important.

Finally, a few words about the organic and integrated implications of the model presented in this paper. There is both a cumulative aspect and a holistic aspect to it. First, it is my intention that each successive stage is built upon and includes the learning from all previous stages. A Stage II learner must have at least some familiarity with the issues and competencies associated with Stage I. Successful team members (Stage IV) should have strong self-concepts in place (Stage I) as well as wide ranging interpersonal skills (Stage II) with great sensitivity to potential group-association issues (Stage III). One can quickly deduce the magnitude of the challenge born by responsible organizational leaders (Stage VI). Ideally, such individuals will have some degree of mastery over all the learning associated with the previous five stages, and still be ready to look into the unknown realms of future growth and development.

There also appears to be a logical grouping of stages into two sets of three: Stage I through Stage III comprise what I consider *basic* learning issues and practices (see Table 1-1), and Stages IV through VI comprise somewhat more *advanced* practices based on the complexity of their contexts (see Table 1-2).

The holistic aspect is more implicit than explicit. To be most effective, all programs of learning introduced in organizations, however narrowly or broadly focused,

should have the support of, if not the participation of, the entire organization. Program effectiveness can be directly related to the degree of commitment demonstrated at all levels, particularly by leaders within the organization. While individuals can learn certain techniques for managing stress (Stage I), their efforts will be quickly frustrated if sources of stress within the organizational structure and hierarchy remain entrenched. Diversity awareness (Stage III) is meaningless if company-wide adjustments are not forthcoming. Likewise, the introduction of TQM (Stage VI) practices will fail miserably if frontline workers are not willing to take responsibility for their work. Learning, or lack of it, at any one stage necessarily affects competence and further learning at any other stage.

The remainder of this paper, then, will offer both a reasoned argument in favor of a more coordinated approach to business trainings and interventions as well as a methodology for achieving the benefits of such a coordinated approach.

	STAGE I	*STAGE II*	*STAGE III*
Relational Context:	Oneself to oneself	Oneself to another	Oneself to a particular cultural or ethnic group
Symptoms:	Inability to observe impact of one's own behavior Poor problem framing and problem solving Poor self-management	Poor communication skills Ineffective idea formulation Inadequate listening skills	Lack of sensitivity to cultural frames of reference Inappropriate behavior Unaware of one's own cultural biases
Learning Issues:	Self-improvement Personal mastery Self-management Self-discovery Patterns of emotion, cognition and behavior	Self-expression Communication skills Active listening	Cultural awareness Differences between sexes Sensitivity to minorities Appropriate conduct and behaviors
Program Topics:	Learning styles and preferences (e.g., MBTI) Time management Stress management Problem solving skills Decision making skills	General communication skills Assertiveness training Effective listening Negotiating skills Conflict management Coaching skills	Diversity awareness Diversity skills Sexual harassment
Competencies and Practices:	Familiarity with one's own belief and value systems Familiarity with one's own emotional, cognitive and behavioral preferences Ability to order one's affairs efficiently and effectively Practice appropriate problem solving and decision making strategies	Idea formulation and expression Assertion skills Active listening practices Questioning skills Competent negotiation skills Conflict resolution skills Mentoring skills	Understanding the influence of group associations such as sex, age, ethnicity, etc. Recognizing how these associations affect our behavior and that of others Situation-appropriate behavior
Role of Critical and Creative Thinking:	Highly meta-cognitive Self-reflective inquiry Identifying creative alternatives to typical patterns of perception and interpretation	Evaluating information from others Suspending judgement Checking assumptions and biases of self and others Critical and creative approaches to expression	Critical inquiry into various sets of bias held by ourselves and others Understanding of divisive effects of certain beliefs, values and behaviors Openness to respectful appreciation of differences

Table 1-1. Basic Learning Practices.

	STAGE IV	*STAGE V*	*STAGE VI*
Relational Context:	Oneself to a work-group or team	Oneself to a large organizational division or department	Oneself to an entire organization
Symptoms:	Ineffective participation in groups Lack of familiarity with group process Poor leadership skills	Poor management practices Inability to plan effectively Inability to lead and motivate others	Lack of vision Inability to lead and motivate others Lack of familiarity with effects of change process Insensitivity to market developments
Learning Issues:	Group process Roles in groups Team building Team development Leadership skills	Management practices Division maintenance and development Leadership skills	Leadership and vision Systems interactions
Program Topics:	Group decision making and problem solving Team building and team development Meeting skills Project planning Facilitation skills Group or team leadership	Management practices, style and development Strategic planning (divisional level) Human resource development Situational leadership	Visionary leadership Strategic planning (organizational level) Total Quality Management Re-engineering Organizational learning
Competencies and Practices:	Familiarity with the stages and process of group development Differentiation between group and team Application of leadership practices to improve process skills and task outcomes	Practices that are responsive to shifting requirements of workers and customers Effective guidance of project planning Create optimal environment for worker success Adaptable repertoire of leadership skills	Exemplary behavior and communication practices Vision development through a shared process Effective planning strategies including development and implementation Guide continuous organizational renewal Stewardship
Role of Critical and Creative Thinking:	Analytical skills such as evaluation and prioritization Problem solving and decision making Planning Innovation	Similar skills to Stage IV applied to the divisional level Creative approaches to internal and external challenges	Future visioning Thoughtful observation of impact of organizational practices, internally and externally Openness to input from internal and external sources

Table 1-2. Advanced Learning Practices.

CHAPTER 2

STAGE I: PERSONAL LEADERSHIP: KNOW THYSELF

People with a high level of personal mastery live in a continual learning mode....[It] is not something you possess. It is a process. It is a lifelong discipline.[1]

It is not enough for a manager to appreciate and understand the temperaments of his subordinates; he also must know how his own temperament affects his leadership.[2]

Comments:

This first level of learning is the most fundamental and the most influential of all. It is virtually impossible to overstate the importance of this stage of learning. It is the level of self-knowing and self-discovery and work at this level can be seen to influence one's engagement in all other stages of learning. It directly concerns such key factors as values, beliefs, awareness, attitude, motivation, commitment, purpose, intention, even issues such as personal style and creative aptitude. At its root, Stage I learning seeks to identify our strengths, weaknesses, likes, dislikes, proclivities, insecurities, hopes and fears. But it goes further. These programs question our motivation, our willingness to learn, our biases and beliefs, all in the context of what and how we learn, and by extension, how and why we define our individual realities the way we do. At this level we also start to question how we make decisions and solve problems, what patterns of thought and emotion we tend to use in particular situations, and how these patterns influence our work activities, whether technical or interpersonal.

Somewhat paradoxically, although learning about ourselves must underlie all other stages of learning, the "work" in this area is never done. We do not learn first about ourselves, then about others, then about groups, and so on. Instead we seek to establish patterns of self-reflection and inquiry and a commitment to these practices that will serve us throughout our lives. Indeed, this is true of all six stages of the model. They are not so much successive as mutually reinforcing so that even leaders of organizations (Stage VI) must not neglect the importance of continuous self-learning (Stage I). Alain Gauthier, a consultant with Innovation Associates of Boston, Massachusetts agrees. He notes, "the leader has a responsibility to pursue personal mastery, not just for his or her own sake, but for everyone else in the organization."[3] Nor is this a recent idea. More than 20 years ago the noted management scholar Peter Drucker suggested, "a superior who works on his own development sets an almost irresistible example."[4] In other words, even when, or especially when, an individual reaches a position of high responsibility for organizational success and continuity, there must still be attention to this most fundamental level of personal development and understanding.

Relational Context:

Accordingly, the primary relationship we are concerned with at this level, or in other words, the contextual focus of learning, is the self. This is the level of self-knowledge and self-knowing.[5] The more we know and understand about ourselves, the better prepared we are to interact with others in a clear, confident manner, and the less likely we are to misinterpret our perceptions of the world around us. Note that there are

two dimensions to this mechanism of perception, both of which are critical to meaningful learning at this level. We look first inwardly to better understand our own processes, and then outwardly to clarify as much as possible our observations.

The work here can be very difficult. Learners must consider their own level of responsibility for certain circumstances, conditions or outcomes. In this area of self-discovery, we must resist the all-too-common tendency of assigning blame for certain difficulties to something or someone outside ourselves. Instead we must constantly ask questions relative to ourselves. Hence, it is less useful to ask questions such as, "why did she say such an awful thing?" than to ask "why do her comments bother me?" If we find ourselves thinking "oh, another boring meeting," we might ask instead "why do I find these meetings so uninteresting?" or "is there some way I can change my level of participation to make them more interesting to me?" While such questions may seem simple, even simplistic, learners may find that it can be surprisingly difficult, even painful, to continually probe into one's own issues, to question our own formulations of reality.

My interview with S.K. confirms the difficulty of getting people to look at themselves. The busy professionals in her division are very reluctant to engage in reflective processing during meetings or trainings. These well-educated people seldom recognize, feel, or admit the need for exploration of their own issues, particularly in a "public" forum where egos and status are at stake. During the TQM initiative at her organization, many supervisors and department heads tried to keep their attention on task issues, rather than address process issues. They "didn't have time" for reassessing their own roles in, and responsibilities for, existing problems. They just wanted to know what

tools or strategies they were supposed to use to fix things. Nor is this response uncommon. As Brown, et al, point out, "managers routinely underestimate the amount of changing they themselves must do" (p. 173). Yet it is the very persistence and pervasiveness of this attitude that points up the urgent need to find ways to engage some type of self-reflection in the learning experience of all workers.

Once again, work in this area of self-development is critical to all other stages of learning. Indeed, it is fair to say that this process of self-discovery is never over. One never really reaches a point where all is known or understood. Ideally, as one moves through subsequent stages of learning, there must be a continuous process of self-reflection taking place. Learners must always be aware of the possible interference of their own mental and emotional lenses, the blocks, biases, baggage, and other forms of interference that could distort their perceptions and interpretations of any information, factual or experiential.

Symptoms:

In the absence of adequate learning at this level we would expect a person to show limited understanding of the functions of perception and information processing. For example, a learner might not recognize the influence of pre-conceptions (mental models, scripts) on sensory information. Various biases and assumptions might remain hidden while they continue to effect a person's behavior and communication. Also symptomatic of this stage is the inability to identify problems and frame them in ways that facilitate the development of solutions. Still another area where we might recognize limited learning at

this stage would be in the ability to manage one's time and tasks effectively. The inability to prioritize responsibilities can be an indication of a person's lack of clarity around goals, personal planning, values, and principles. Stage I learning is intended to address these kinds of issues which I discuss more fully below.

Learning Issues:

The Learning Issues in Stage I revolve around our ability to manage our own involvement in the world. As noted, the learning at this stage is primarily related to self-discovery, that is, identifying how our own mental, emotional and behavioral patterns help create our present reality. Terms such as self-improvement, personal mastery, self-management, personal growth and personal responsibility are common. As Peter Senge (1990) explains in his discussion of Personal Mastery, there are really two aspects to this work. First we are continually seeking clarity around what is important to us, our own values, beliefs, needs, aspirations, and so on. Secondly, we continually learn how to see the reality of the world around us more clearly, how to minimize the influence of our own biases and preconceptions.

But there is a more generative side to this stage as well. All the work around how we perceive the world, and ourselves in that world, will not by itself lead to fulfillment, only increased clarity. And clarity of perception by itself lacks the power to move us in a purposeful way. A more compelling motivation for this individual work would be the creation and deployment of a personal vision, an individual purpose that defines who we are and what we are about in the world. In his book entitled On Becoming a Leader,

Warren Bennis (1984) talks about the importance of being "self-deployed" rather than being "deployed by the world." Again, we see the theme that leaders of organizations are first and foremost leaders of themselves. Bennis' self-deployment is an important principle not only for de facto leaders, but for anyone who is engaged in a process of self-learning where that process includes developing momentum towards what is important to their future. Gaining a deeper understanding of one's own purpose or calling becomes an integral part of this level of work. Developing the will and courage to define one's own place, to follow one's own unique drummer, in life and in business, is a pre-requisite to fulfillment. That process begins most appropriately at this early stage and carries on through one's entire span of development, ideally a life-long experience.

Program Topics:

At the most fundamental level, typical programs directly address the learning preferences or behavioral patterns of participants. There are training programs on learning styles, individual decision-making styles, thinking skills and styles, problem-solving skills, and finally a number of offerings geared towards increased understanding of behavioral patterns and preferences, most notably those associated with the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Many of these offerings include some type of assessment instrument as a way of identifying and grouping individual preferences into meaningful categories with like-tendencies. By learning what categories we fall into, and what types of patterns are usually associated with these categories, we start to gain some insight into certain habits

workers who share their interests or experiences. Consequently, the benefit and application of much of this learning is too often lost to most organizations.

The second problem with the manner, or strategy, of presentation is related to this matter of lost, or impermanent learning. Most often, training programs at this level are presented as one-time, hit-and-run sessions. Trainers try to cram too much information into too little time knowing there will not likely be another opportunity to build on any foundation they might establish. This lack of follow-up effectively defeats the potential effectiveness of most training programs. Very few people can successfully internalize new information, or meaningfully process new experiences in one sitting. Most of us require repeated exposure and effective processing as part of our learning experience. Without additional opportunities to deepen their learning, most people lose any long term benefit fairly quickly, usually within days. In the meantime, senior decision-making executives wonder why they keep wasting money offering training sessions since no one seems to learn anything and nothing changes.

Let us consider Stress Management as an example. Consider the following observation: "There is little doubt that stress-management training has, over the past few years, become the most popular form of training available in American organizations." (John D. Adams. Quoted in Murphy and Schoenborn. 1989. p. 87). Indeed there are volumes written about stress and its effects on virtually every aspect of our lives; there are research organizations, and stress divisions of various psychological institutes; there is even an American Institute for Stress in New York City. Stress research and training has

become big business and no consultant or trainer worthy of the name survives without some version of a stress management intervention ready at a moment's notice.

But here is the discrepancy. Most organizations approach stress management training as one of those hit-and-run programs, offered in a single day, no follow-up, available to whatever departments or individuals are expendable on the date in question. Yet all educators who are serious advocates of stress reduction consistently argue for a more comprehensive intervention, one that considers the entire organization, its personnel, its structure, its culture, its very buildings. Again according to Adams, "comprehensive stress-management programs must focus on both the individual and the system" (p. 89).

Typical lists of workplace "stressors" include all manner of events (e.g., expressing feelings or opinions, making requests, dealing with conflict, and so on), all manner of individual patterns of behavior and thought (e.g., all-or-nothing thinking, exaggerating negative factors, inappropriate blaming of external sources, inappropriate blaming of self, and so on), and host of other factors such as individual morals, unresolved childhood experiences, and overall sense of self-esteem. But there is more. The very managerial structure of an organization can be, and usually is, a factor. What if a highly qualified woman is trying to gain an executive position in an organization that routinely excludes women at that level? What if the configuration of offices favors certain individuals and marginalizes others? Who reports to whom? Who make which decisions? All these factors, and more, come into play when considering the effects of stress in an organization.

It is difficult not to get ahead of myself here. As we will see, the integrated nature of all six Stages of learning lends itself to a kind of disorientation, a loss of focus on the pertinent Context and Issues of each individual Stage. Obviously, then, Stress Management can and should be an organization-wide undertaking. But in its simplest and most frequent incarnation, program participants are left to gather insight into what they can achieve as individuals to lessen the adverse effects of stressful circumstances. Unfortunately, for the participants and the company itself, this single-program or narrow focus approach can yield only limited results.

Competencies and Practices:

In an ideal world where training programs are effectively applied throughout an organization, learned competencies at each levels would reinforce those at all other levels. Nowhere is this more true than at Stage I. The competence that comes with the development of self-knowing forms the core of learnings from all other stages. Indeed it is fair to say that the success of all other stages of learning can be measured in direct proportion to the successful acquisition of Stage I competencies.

While a detailed, comprehensive list is probably not possible, the competencies noted below serve as examples of certain categories of learning, recognizing that within each category additional specific issues could be identified.

- recognition of one's own biases related to other persons or groups
- familiarity with one's own belief systems
- familiarity with one's preferred learning style
- familiarity with one's preferred cognitive and emotional style

- a basic sense of some long-term vision or plan and how one's current work situation fits into that plan
- a sense for one's innate gifts (intelligences)
- the ability to order one's affairs so as to achieve optimum results in any activity
- basic problem identification and problem solving

Finally, it is useful to keep in mind Peter Senge's own comments on his concept of Personal Mastery: "Personal Mastery goes beyond competence and skills, though it is grounded in competence and skills. It goes beyond spiritual unfolding or opening, although it requires spiritual growth. It means approaching one's life as a creative work, living life from a creative as opposed to reactive viewpoint" (1990, p. 141).

Role of CCT:

As I will note throughout my discussion of the present model, both critical thinking and creative thinking are actively employed at all Stages of learning. Indeed I consider them to be aspects of a single process, quite simply *thinking,* as inhalation and exhalation are aspects of respiration. Nevertheless, it does seem that certain Stages of learning benefit from, even encourage, a greater emphasis of one aspect over the other. As I will show, there seems to be a natural progression from the earlier stages of the model where there is more emphasis on reflective, critical thinking, to the latter stages which are more conducive to generative, creative processes. Still, both aspects of cognition must be active and available at all times.

Accordingly, we see that in Stage I there seems to be more emphasis on a reflective process usually associated with critical thinking, than the generative aspect of creative thought. The term *meta-cognition* represents the experience and process of

thinking about our thinking, where the very object of our thinking is our thinking itself. Through meta-cognition we examine our perceptions, biases, preferences, assumptions, and so on. We consider how thought is organized, experienced and applied as we seek greater understanding of the world around us, all of which sounds very much like the kind of work described in many of the programs above.

Creative thought comes into play at this stage as we begin to seek alternative forms of response to certain situations, or as we begin to engage in the shaping of personal visions and missions that represent our increased appreciation of our place or calling in life. The new dawning of a sense of self-empowerment, one lost to most of us in childhood, is a crucial step towards re-defining our relationship with ourselves, toward replacing old, worn-out patterns and paradigms with new, stimulating and meaningful beliefs and behaviors that help propel us in the direction we have identified for ourselves, for our professional careers and our lives as a whole.

CHAPTER 3

STAGE II: INTERPERSONAL LEARNING

How do people know how others view them? The first conclusion is a counterintuitive one: People rely very little on feedback from others. Instead, they directly observe their own behavior, and infer from it what others think of them.[1]

Father to young son: "It's only a suggestion but let's not forget who's making it."[2]

Comments:

Learning at Stage II focuses on our basic understanding of human interaction. As a matter of practicality, I have limited the scope of this discussion to two-person interactions, although small groups of three or four could serve reasonably well. The point here is to be able to focus as carefully as possible on the communication efforts between individuals. Obviously it is easier to concentrate on two people, self and one other, than on three or four.[3]

In these relatively simple systems, or dyads, learners are first challenged to develop methods of clear, effective communication. At a minimum this comprises two aspects: first, self-expression, such as the formulation and articulation of coherent ideas, or the honest representation of feelings, both positive and negative; and second, the ability to meaningfully grasp the ideas, intentions, feelings, and purpose of another person; in a word, to understand. Here, not only does a person continue to examine his or her own cognitive, emotional and behavioral patterns, as learned in Stage I, but those of another as

well. Ultimately, the dynamics between one person's ideas or actions and another person's perceptions and understanding become the crux of Stage II learning.

Relational Context:

The fundamental relationship here is one to one, or oneself to another. Such pairings, or dyads, can be extremely rich practice fields for our learning since the range of potential threats is generally limited, especially among peers. We can observe more carefully the effects of our communication on another person and note as well the impact of their communication and behavior on us. Furthermore, the basic and ever present issues of power and influence can best be identified and challenged in dyadic engagements. Because of their relative safety, dyads afford the best opportunity to observe the interplay between two sets of assumptions, two sets of values and beliefs, and to question or clarify our observations or those of another. If there is a drawback, it is precisely because there are only two participants. The inherent weakness in this context is the limited number of perspectives on any issue, where more ideas could yield better results, e.g., in generating possible ideas for problem solving.

Symptoms:

Persons with limited exposure to the learning issues associated with this stage demonstrate various poor communication skills, either generally or in certain specific situations such as a negotiation or an interview. These problems can take the form of incomplete or incoherent idea formulation, ineffective self-expression, inattentive listening

habits, or lack of appropriate questioning skills. In addition, communications may be permeated with judgements, conclusions, biases, and assumptions, whether implicit or explicit. In one instance from a client to the consulting company I work for, a man was hired for a new position. He believed he was the new VP of Sales and Marketing. When he received his new business cards, however, he noted that his title was VP of Sales. After more than a year, this issue is still not resolved to everyone's satisfaction. One lesson is that there is no level of an organization that is exempt from such problems. It is fair to note that all communication is influenced to some degree by these factors. It is at this stage, then, that learners have the opportunity to explore the impact of these various factors on their attempts at shared understanding.

Learning Issues:

In Stage II learning we enter the realm of interpersonal learning. The inner dynamic associated with the *intra*personal processes of Stage I must now find external manifestation through interaction with at least one other person. No longer does the learner remain focused only on oneself. Now one's attention must begin to include a larger system dynamic that emerges through interaction with others. Because communication skills vary among individuals, a wide range of accuracy can be seen in the effectiveness of this externalization. Individual communication patterns can be influenced by a number of internal and external factors with the result that both the transfer and reception of a message can remain uncertain with respect to content and intention. The broadest category of learning in Stage II, then, will be in the general realm of

interpersonal communication skills. This will be followed by a number of specialty areas that can be seen as sub-sets of this larger category.

Learning in the category of communication skills is usually grouped into its two obvious components: sending a message and receiving a message. Both aspects can be influenced by a number of factors which must be taken into consideration. Some of these are applicable to the general conditions of the communication event, some are more specific to either the sender or receiver. First, contextual issues play an important role. In any communication there are always physical, cognitive and psychological contexts at work for both sender and receiver. Secondly, the meaning and impact of a message will be significantly influenced by the sender's intention and purpose, as well as by the receiver's motives, whether express or covert. And finally, the effectiveness of a communication will be directly influenced by the sender's ability to congruently deliver, or encode, and the receiver's ability to accurately interpret, or decode, the intended message. These abilities refer to the use of all means of communication - linguistic, vocal, and nonverbal - in a manner consistent with the communicators' respective intentions and appropriate to their context (I am, of course, referring to a verbal exchange here, not a written one).

In addition to these shared influences, there are particular factors that effect either the delivery or the reception of a communicated message. These, too, must be taken into consideration as learning issues. First, we learn that, for all speakers, the effective use of language is not nearly as commonplace as one might assume. A number of factors come into play that can enhance or obscure the intent of a verbal message. These range from

certain explicit practices such as the use of vague or imprecise words or phraseology, to various implicit practices such as the effects of certain personal or cultural biases or the unconscious use of value-laden terms. These factors, then, span a learning continuum that includes the disciplines of syntax and semantics at one end and psychology and ethics on the other. While I am not advocating that learners must become experts in the entire gamut of related disciplines in order to be considered good communicators, there likely is room for improvement in most people's repertoire of linguistic skills.

Nonverbal influences include two categories: vocal characteristics and body language. Non-linguistic vocal factors include:

pitch (high-low)
range (narrow-spread)
volume (loud-soft)
articulation (forceful-relaxed)
rhythm (smooth-disjunct)
resonance (full-thin)
tempo (rapid-slow)
dysfluencies (*um, er,* etc.)
pauses (frequency and duration)[4]

While we seldom pay attention to these factors, unless we encounter them in the extreme such as a very high pitch or a very slow tempo, they nonetheless effect the quality of every verbal communication. And as speakers we are likely to be even less aware of our own patterns of use and how they effect our communication.

Body language, too, includes an array of factors:

appearance (clothing, grooming)
facial expressions
eye movements
body posture and movements

interpersonal spacing[5]
the use of time (making people wait; arriving early; etc.)

Again, each of these elements has been studied in great detail by various disciplines and much has been written about them. As a practical matter, while it is not necessary to become expert in all these areas in order to meaningfully improve one's communication skills, some familiarity with their role can greatly improve chances for effective interactions.

The receiving end of communicative interaction, or what we somewhat inappropriately refer to simply as *listening,* is likewise more complex than we ordinarily realize. Clearly, with all the influencing factors noted above that come into play for the speaker, listeners must be very attentive to the virtual barrage of messages that accompany any verbal communication. One can hardly afford to be passive in this process. Indeed, so-called *active listening* has become one of the focal points of most approaches to teaching listening skills. The active listener, is consciously and intentionally involved in the communication process and makes use of a number of responses that communicate to the speaker that the intended message is being appropriately received and understood. In other words, the listener is not just receiving data but also *conveying* data back to the speaker, and the speaker is not just sending out information but also *receiving* response stimuli from the listener.

> "An essential feature of conversation is the active participation of both partners. Among other contributions, the listener is responsible for the smooth unfolding of the discourse by displaying attention. To be sure to be understood, the speaker most likely relies on nonverbal and particularly facial signals sent by the listener. Receptivity may be expressed nonverbally by bodily attitudes and gaze orientation."[6]

So in any communication, both participants are sending and receiving numerous complex messages throughout the process.

Listening skills can also be approached from the perspective of the listener's purpose or role. We can learn about informational listening, where factual data is sought, or evaluative listening, where information is judged as valid or appropriate, or we can engage in empathic listening, focusing on the needs or circumstances of the speaker. Obviously, one can be more or less *active* in any of these modes.

The primary learning issues in Stage II, then, are related to the general formulation, delivery, reception, and interpretation of information. In addition, there are a number of specialty issues that inhere at this level, all the result of specific work contexts. These include such matters as negotiation, conflict situations, coaching, and even interviewing or performance evaluation. While there are a number of specific issues associated with each of these contexts, they all require a level of familiarity with basic communication practices.

Program Topics:

The most common training intervention at this stage is the all-inclusive communications skills seminar, typically a one-day program. It will usually address the two most obvious aspects of communication, conveying information and receiving information. Half the time, then, is spent attempting to increase learners ability to formulate and convey information, whether written or verbal (although the topic of writing skills has become a specialty unto itself). Then the focus shifts as learners seek to enhance

their listening skills, their ability to meaningfully receive the intended message. Sub-set programs related to general communication practices would include topics such as Listening Skills, Feedback Practices, Presentation Skills, or Writing Skills. Assertiveness Training might also belong here.

In addition to the generic types of program cited above, there are a number of specialty topics that examine communications issues in particular contexts, or practices used toward particular ends. For example, Interview Skills would usually address specific points related to the particular event of a job interview, or promotion interview. The perspective might be that of either the interviewer or the interviewee and typical goals range from elicitation of adequate and accurate information, to how to leave a good impression (more for the interviewee, but not exclusively). Other examples include Negotiation Skills, Conflict Management, Coaching Skills, and certain aspects of Meeting Skills (although this last one may have more relevance in Stages IV, V and VI where more than two people are involved).

Competencies and Practices:

There are two levels of competencies in Stage II. First there are general communication skills that are applicable in all forms of interpersonal interaction. These would include:

Self-Expression:

- the coherent formulation of ideas
- the ability to express ideas clearly and succinctly
- surfacing awareness of one's feelings

- the ability to talk about one's feelings and their potential impact on the interaction
- awareness of one's expectations
- the ability to talk about those expectations

Reception:

- the ability to listen in an undistracted manner
- familiarity with nonverbal communication
- the willingness to seek clarification when messages are not initially understood
- appropriate questioning skills for checking and validating assumptions and inferences

Then there are the more context-specific competencies associated with the specialty programs noted above such as Negotiating Skills, Coaching Skills, Interviewing Skills, and so on. Requirements here include all the competencies associated with general communication programs as well as various practices associated with the specific topic. For example, learning goals for an Assertiveness Training session might include:

- Setting clear outcomes - identifying what specific result is sought in a particular interaction
- Recognizing agendas - identifying others' agendas that may interfere with the achievement of your own desired outcome
- Learning to say "no" - the ability to tactfully refuse or decline other's requests for help or inclusion

Similar lists could be made for all of the context-specific programs associated with Stage II. All are essentially variations of the more general set of communication skills. They are at the core of all these others.

And once again I want to re-emphasize that the competencies originally associated with Stage I must not be abandoned here. Interpersonal skills do not supplant intrapersonal skills; rather, they serve to augment our personal development by providing the opportunity to create meaning outside ourselves, to positively impact our environment,

whether at work, with family or at play. The process of self-development continues, now with an added dimension, as we observe the quality and degree of the impact made by our ideas and behavior in the world around us

Role of CCT:

Appropriate cognitive processes at Stage II are similar to those identified in Stage I. There is still a preponderance of reflective thinking, evaluating our own experiences and our perceptions of the impressions we make in the world. But just as in Stage I, there is some generative thinking going on as well, at this level not only limited to ideas and concepts, but now including behavioral strategies, i.e., what steps will yield the result or outcome we want. As learners we should continue developing ideas and visions of future possibilities, but now those possibilities begin to include other people and the interests of others add dimension and complexity to our cognitive formulations.

This increase in complexity raises one of the most fundamental concepts associated with critical thinking, that of multiple frames of reference. It is here that we begin to learn that a truly objective, unbiased perspective is difficult to come by. Cognitivists would say it simply does not exist. How could true objectivity be impossible? Do we not all operate with the same five senses for receiving information about the world? Yes we do, I would say. But variations in how effectively we use our senses and how we interpret their data are crucial. The difficulty lies in this: each individual apprehends their experiences through the filters created by their apprehension of their own experiences. In other words, we tend to process new experiences in relation to previous experiences, and this tendency

causes us to perceive (and in some cases imagine) certain familiar features and patterns and to ignore less familiar information. The result is that, to quote the old saw, "we hear what we want to hear, see what we want to see." What this really means is that we perceive what we are most ready to perceive, ready by virtue of familiarity.

The matter becomes further complicated as our store of experience grows. Because most humans can only work with a limited number of bits of data at a time (6 or 7 is typical. See Miller, 1956) we do not store information randomly, bit by bit. Instead, we develop mental models, or scripts, for all sorts of categories of experience such as "going to a restaurant," or "talking to the boss." These mental models are sets of general information we usually associate with the category of experience in question. All restaurants tend to have certain commonalities and all bosses tend to have certain commonalities, or so we come to believe based on our experiences. And there is the rub. Because we tend to evaluate any experience against our stored mental model for that category of event, our perception of an actual event can become contaminated by our pre-conceived ideas of what it should include. We might mistakenly remember ashtrays on the tables of a restaurant (especially one we have been to before), even though they no longer allow smoking. Or I might "notice" how the boss was critical during a performance review, even though she found one weakness in my work and noted four strengths.

This area of learning needs particular attention. We must constantly work to clarify information we receive, verbal or otherwise. At the same time we must learn to make allowances for other interpretations of events, recognizing that everyone's perception is somewhat skewed by their own unique set of experiences and their

interpretation of those experiences. In other words, we must learn to consider other possible frames of reference in any situation. This practice becomes increasingly important as we move into the next two stages of learning, both of which deal with larger groups and therefore more possible points of view. As we will see, an important plateau is reached as learners are able to move from a kind of patient tolerance of other perspectives to actually appreciating the benefit of differing perspectives, ideas, opinions, beliefs, and so on. This appreciation is the key to effective learning in Stages III and IV.

CHAPTER 4

STAGE III: UNDERSTANDING CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Transforming an organization's culture into one that welcomes diversity challenges the tendency of most people to want to surround themselves with (i.e., hire and promote) others like themselves.[1]

There is an inherent conflict in considering workforce diversity because of the need to see each worker both as an individual and as a member of a group.[2]

Comments:

The concept of diversity in the workplace has emerged as one of the most complex, and at the same time one of the most compelling of this decade. It is complex because of the myriad factors affecting issues of diversity. First, there are numerous components, or memberships, to consider in a diverse workforce. The usual criteria include sex, race, ethnicity, age, sexual preference, and disability. Second, government legislators have put forth a series of commandments over the past 30 years that require adherence. These include the Equal Pay Act (1963), the Civil Rights Act (1964, and amended 1972), the Age Discrimination Act (1967), the Vietnam Veterans Readjustment Act (1974), the Pregnancy Discrimination Act (1978), and the Americans with Disabilities Act (1990). Thirdly, as a function of these litigious times, workers often initiate law suits if they feel they are the victim of some impropriety. And courts have reacted with substantial judgements against offenders. For example, a jury awarded $20.3 million to a

single person in a sex discrimination case against Texaco in 1991. And again in 1996, Texaco was at the center of racial controversy after some inappropriate remarks made by management were caught on audio tape and circulated to media sources.[3] Fourth, but by no means least, are the obvious moral and ethical considerations associated with equal opportunity.

The compelling aspects of diversity are equally important for companies expecting to thrive in the next century. There are significant demographic changes that are well under way, trends that already significantly impact the overall makeup of organizational workforces in virtually every country of the world. Prognostications vary to some degree, but the general trends are not in dispute. Early in the 21st Century, nearly half of all workers in the US will be women, and roughly 45% of all net additions to the labor force in the 1990's will be non-white, half of these first-generation immigrants from Asia and Latin countries. Other leading industrial nations such as Germany, France, Italy and Japan are also facing significant pressures from women and various ethnic forces.[4] Another recent report notes that within the next decade, only about 15% of new entrants into the US workforce will be young white males.[5] The long range implications of these trends on diversity management in today's organizations should be apparent. In all its forms, workforce diversity is fast becoming the norm.

In addition to these internal developments, companies of all sizes are being impacted by technological advancements and the rapid development of truly international markets for products and services of all kinds. This means that a local manufacturer of, say packaged meat products, whose customers were once defined by the limits of

interstate truck transportation, could now be filling orders, or obtaining products, from Southeast Asia, or South America, or eastern Europe. These developments raise cultural issues that few American businesses are prepared for. Decades of successful local commerce have essentially blinded most business leaders to the complexities that accompany the opening of larger and larger market bases. Now decision makers are being forced to recognize that they must learn to identify and accommodate the needs of these new markets, that cultural norms vary widely and that successful marketing can depend on proper understanding of and respect for these norms, with their differing value sets and belief systems.[6]

Relational Context:

Stage III relationships introduce challenging levels of complexity. Each individual has the potential to represent not only oneself but also a group or population, or an amalgamation of groups or populations. An individual might be a woman, a person of color, a Roman Catholic, a lawyer, and so on. When she interacts with others, how does she balance or integrate these associations? And what challenges does this complexity, this multiplicity, pose for anyone engaged in interaction with her? And ultimately, how can one person who represents a multiplicity of belief and value systems interact with another person who represents a multiplicity of belief and value systems? Even when only two persons are engaged in communication, the potential for misrepresentation or misinterpretation can be staggering.

So while actual Stage III events ideally involve one person interacting with one other, the level of awareness, i.e., the focus of attention, for each individual runs on at least two tracks simultaneously: first, from the self as individual; secondly, from the self as a representative of a certain group. Cox (1993, p.43) presents a simple case.

> For example, in responding to the question, "Who am I?" an individual might say: (1) "I am an inquisitive person" (individual trait), and (2) "I am a Christian" (a group identity trait).

Learning to identify our own frames of reference as well as those of a colleague will prove crucial to effective communication.

Symptoms:

Symptoms of problem behavior at this level are generally founded on a lack of sensitivity towards the meaning and value others attribute to their group or cultural associations. They may take the obvious form of inappropriate remarks or discriminatory practices. But some of the more insidious effects are more subtle, and therefore more difficult to identify. This is especially true relative to our own frames of reference. We are not quick to see or acknowledge the advantages of our own status, be it racial, economic, religious, age-related, and so on. One of the primary challenges, then, is to inquire into the influences on our own perspective, our own values and beliefs.

A second area of symptomatic problems comes in the form of a lack of appreciation for others' views, opinions, values, and beliefs. We tend to respond to

differences as alien and therefore invalid or unacceptable. Learning to appreciate, even solicit differing points of view is an important part of Stage III development.

Learning Issues:

Issues for learning and practice in Stage III form a kind of bridge between Stages II and IV. To the general interpersonal learning associated with Stage II we now add a new dimension, one that is usually relegated to the background of most interactions, yet one that can greatly influence how our messages are formulated, how they might be received, and how we might perceive information from another.

Effective communication is conditioned upon the existence of a shared belief and value systems between parties as well as a shared symbol system for representing our intentions. Variations in these systems are seldom the result of isolated individual habits, needs or expectations. Most of us are influenced in important, though often subtle, ways by our cultural contexts. These contexts serve to establish the backdrop or framework upon which many, if not most, of our habituated behaviors develop. As Cox (1993, p. 48) points out, "members of identity groups tend to share certain world views." So there tends to be a kind of pre-determined structure to much of what we believe or espouse and one of the most important learning issues in the area of diversity focuses on surfacing that structure and identifying how it might hinder and help our efforts at effective communication.

There are numerous problems that can result with this type of group representation (Cox, 1993). Ironically, most of these occur because we seem to be, at our core,

individuals. For example, some problems may come about when an individual associated with a particular group does not hold fast to the entire set of beliefs associated with that group but is still "tagged" by others as a proponent of those beliefs. Picture the following scenario, a team meeting between three top-level executives. John is a practicing Roman Catholic but does not believe that the Pope is infallible when speaking on all matters. Beatrice is a woman of color but does not believe that Louis Farakand accurately portrays the influence of Jewish culture on Western economies. Michael is from Northern Ireland but is not in favor of the methods used by the IRA (Irish Republican Army) to eliminate British control and influence. In this scenario, each has researched certain aspects of a new partner company and they have come together in their executive team meeting to share the their findings. John finds it difficult to talk about his excitement over their new business partner in England for fear of offending Michael; Michael cannot bring himself to mention that the CEO of this new partner company is Jewish, unsure how Beatrice feels about Jews, particularly wealthy and influential Jews; and Beatrice fails to mention that the partner company has a subsidiary that produces birth control pills because John's support is crucial to the new joint venture. Each one withholds some information for fear of offending one of the other members, thereby risking the loss of their support for this important merger.

While this example may seem a bit comical or absurd, it raises an important issue at the heart of Stage III learning. How can we increase our respectful sensitivity to diverse interest groups and still communicate openly and effectively?

I said this work serves as a kind of bridge because while most of the learning here is best managed in the context of one-on-one relationships, it soon becomes apparent that each individual represents not only oneself but also a number of groups or populations, what Cox calls "culture identity groups." Indeed, one can be seen to represent any and all of the types of groups already mentioned, ethnic groups, gender, age, sexual preference, and so on. It is understandable, then, that the ideas expressed by a person may not be entirely of their own formulation but may be infused with influences from the adopted belief systems associated with certain cultural, religious, or other identity groups. In such cases, the individual becomes, sometimes unwittingly sometimes not, a spokesperson for a prescribed set of beliefs or principals. So in some sense, interacting with a person means interacting with a larger population and this will affect the nature of the interaction. And this is "dual-representation" plays a greater and greater role as we move into the latter stages of this model, where larger group and organizational structures are at play.

Program Topics:

Regardless of the topic of a particular diversity training program - ethnicity, gender, and so on - there are two main approaches commonly available: *awareness training* and *skill-based training*. Awareness training is usually considered the starting point for diversity programs. Its goals might center on the transfer of information that highlights certain inequities in opportunity, or they might be more process-oriented, aiming at uncovering the participants' unconscious cultural assumptions and biases. As such, it is apparent that awareness-based training is primarily cognitive in nature.

Skill-based programs are still comparatively new in the field and there is not yet any consensus on the most effective mix of skills. Carnevale and Stone (1995) cite a number of skills posited by various consultants: cross-cultural understanding, intercultural communication, facilitation skills, flexibility/adaptability, self-awareness, clear-headedness, openness, candor, and so on. Not surprisingly, many of these seem more than a little nebulous and subject to a range of interpretations. But such is the realm of interpersonal interactions. As I have stated, we all develop our understanding of the world in very personal ways, but diversity training helps us understand the influences of our cultural contexts. We are not individual islands floating randomly in a sea of indifference. We are, each of us, individual systems - physical, emotional, cognitive systems - who are part of collective systems - family, community, cultural systems. Our individuality is influenced by collective values, beliefs and behaviors, and the work of diversity programs is first to identify those influences then to help develop practices that will move away from habits of alienation towards patterns of mutual understanding and appreciation. The cultural norms of an organization play an important role in this process. Carnevale and Stone note that "in most organizations, valuing and managing diversity requires nothing less than cultural transformation. This is a prodigious task...." (1995, p. 93). While there is little doubt that such a prodigious task will not be accomplished with short term training sessions, even an undertaking as ambitious as transforming the culture of an entire organization must begin somewhere.

Competencies and Practices:

The culture of every organization supports and rewards certain desired behaviors and thereby establishes various norms. The message is: conformity yields acceptance. But ultimately behaviors, or competencies, of any kind must be practiced and demonstrated at the individual level. Nowhere is this more evident than in the realm of diversity. Instituting policies and establishing guidelines is not going to change the beliefs and fears that underlie our patterns of cognition and behavior. The level of learning that will be most effective in diversity work must evolve over a period of time, from a few weeks to a few years, as individuals reflect on their own sets of paradigms about groups of people.

There are two aspects to this work which we can begin to formulate as a set of competencies. One aspect is related to our ability to inquire into our own blocks and fears about interacting with people with differing perspectives. This is decidedly metacognitive process and is closely related to the learning discussed in Stage I. But whereas Stage I is primarily concerned with identifying and familiarizing oneself with various patterns of cognition, here in Stage III the level of inquiry must go deeper. I want to learn not just *what* my typical and preferred patterns are but where they come from, how they came about, and what they show about my own sense of associations with groups. This work can be very difficult to approach. For example, I may not see myself as a racist, as a classist, as a sexist, but is there anything about my behavior, my deeply held (even hidden) beliefs that seeks to maintain the advantage of status accorded my white maleness? Honesty can prove very painful here.

The second aspect to diversity learning that can serves as a basis for identifying competencies is one's ability to develop an understanding of another person's belief and value systems. The same level of inquiry that was focused on the self must also be brought to one's attempts to understand the emotional, cognitive and behavioral dynamics of another. This can only be accomplished if this other person is made to feel comfortable and "safe" in expressing his or her own truths. This does not mean that a person should feel compelled to reveals personal matters or individual values for the sake of accomplishing some task or even building rapport. Rather, the goal is to establish a field of mutual trust wherein each participant can communicate freely and openly on the subject at hand and know that their input will be valued and considered based on its merits, not on any preconceptions associated with one's group affiliations.

The astute reader will note that these two aspects of learning are similar to the two levels of learning noted in my discussion of Stage II competencies, under the headings Self-expression and Reception. Further, as I have already stated, similarities to Stage I competencies are evident in the first aspect of diversity learning above. With this, the emerging pattern of the Stages of Learning Model is becoming more recognizable. Each successive level of learning not only builds upon previous levels but also assimilates those levels of practices into itself. The work of Stage I self-discovery is never finished, it merely continues in deeper and more complex ways. Likewise, the interpersonal work in Stage II is never complete. There are ever-increasing levels of complexity that challenge us to look deeper and deeper into contextual systems that influence our conduct and that of others.

In the end, we are being asked through diversity training and learning to accomplish a simple yet perilously elusive purpose. Writing in *The Futurist*, Harlan Cleveland puts is this way: "we need to learn how to be different together" (March-April, 1995).

Role of CCT:

Brookfield (1987) reduces the multifarious approaches to, and descriptions of, critical thinking to two fundamental practices: identifying and challenging assumptions, and exploring and imagining alternatives.[7] These core functions apply in some degree to critical thinking in all contexts. But it is particularly relevant in a discussion of diversity in the workplace. Brookfield describes one of the important results of challenging assumptions this way: "A major outcome of identifying and challenging assumptions is the recognition of how important it is to understand the context within which assumptions, and the actions that spring from these, are formed" (p 16). Through such inquiry, "people realize that actions, values, beliefs, and moral codes can be fully understood only when the context in which they are framed is appreciated." Later, following the work of Mezirow (1985a), he distinguishes between *psychological assumptions* and *cultural assumptions*. Whereas the former can be attributed to individual patterns, the latter "are imbedded in the dominant cultural values of a society and are transmitted by social institutions" (p. 45). It is these cultural values that underlie the issues associated with diversity.[8]

In Stage I we were concerned with our own individual assumptions. In Stage II we began to inquire into the individual assumptions of another. Here in Stage III, we

inquire into the contexts that surround and permeate any and all interpersonal interactions. This rather daunting effort is meant to establish clear lines of communication through respectful understanding and shared meaning. Reeves (1996) notes "the key to critical thinking lies in the questioning of oneself in self-reflection and the questioning of others, and by others, for purposes of clarity, mutual understanding, and persuasion."[9] And Brookfield adds, "making explicit what is implicit in how we look at the world is a central task of critical thinking" (p. 44).

Paul (1990) concurs that this process of surfacing differing assumptions, and by extension differing frames of reference, is fundamental to any practice that would call itself critical thinking. He suggests that "a multi-dimensional, interdependent world cannot be fathomed by people schooled in fragmented, monological specialties...most problems are multi-dimensional, logically messy, require interdisciplinary analysis and synthesis, and demand sympathetic consideration of conflicting views or frames of reference" (p. 19).

Prejudice, bias, judgement, assumptions, these are the stuff of both diversity and critical thinking. But creativity, i.e. generative thinking, is not totally inappropriate here, particularly as we endeavor to develop behavioral skills that serve to improve overall understanding between persons and groups. Fresh, honest approaches to communication will necessarily entail some creativity, innovation, and openness to new perspectives and experiences.

CHAPTER 5

STAGE IV: TEAM DEVELOPMENT: PARTICIPATING IN SHARED PURPOSE

Individuals do not sacrifice their personal interests to the larger team vision; rather the shared vision becomes an extension of their personal vision.[1]

Working collaboratively, employees increasingly must gather and synthesize information, interpret and decide jointly how to act on it, and take collective responsibility for implementing, monitoring, and evaluating their actions.[2]

Comments:

While I have already mentioned the cumulative aspect of the present model, it should be evident to the reader by now that each successive stage is something more than the sum of the parts introduced in previous stages. Accordingly, Stage IV learning incorporates all the issues and competencies, stated and implied, from Stages I, II and III, but adds several dimensions for further exploration. Stage IV is concerned with group and team processes and learners at this level must go beyond their self-knowledge, their interpersonal interaction skills, and their group association awareness, and now become a participant in a *shared* purpose.

The challenge for each individual is to contribute to the creation of a group or team consciousness, one with its own values, norms, beliefs, expectations, and so on, and then participate in that new level of consciousness without succumbing to the pitfalls of "groupthink." According to Fisher (1980), "groupthink is not merely conformity of

members to group pressures. Rather, it is characterized by defective or ineffective judgements that are precipitated by the tendency of members to seek concurrence with other members at all costs."[3] By contrast, as Senge suggests in the citation above, effective group or team process does not mean leaving one's own systems behind. On the contrary it represents an opportunity to extend and expand our self- and other-systems in ways unavailable to us as individuals. For some, the power of the group affords opportunities for experiences that are virtually transcendent in nature. But this does not happen automatically. More teams fall short of their potential than meet or exceed it (Kinlaw, 1991; Katzenbach and Smith, 1993). This chapter will discuss some of the factors that are associated with group development, building successful teams and effective leadership.

But first, a point a clarification is necessary. There can be some confusion between the term *group* and the term *team*. Indeed they have often been used interchangeably. However, more recent literature has tended to distinguish between group and team, the latter being a higher order of the former (e.g., Katzenbach and Smith, 1993). In other words, all teams are groups, but not all groups function as teams. Teams are groups that demonstrate the ability to function in superior ways, and sometimes even approach those transcendent qualities alluded to above. Kinlaw (1991) notes that certain performance functions (task orientation) and certain qualitative functions (shared processes) inhere in all groups. But he goes on to distinguish between work groups, work teams and superior work teams. The differences between the three categories have to do with the consistency and intensity demonstrated by particular groups. So work groups,

the least intense grouping, achieve only low level functioning. Work teams *sometimes* achieve high level functioning. And superior work teams *always* operate at the highest functional levels, both in task achievement, or performance, and in the quality of processes used.

Kinlaw's continuum makes reasonable sense out of the potential terminology trap. Since superior learning is the focus of this paper, I will favor the use of the word *team* in the remainder of this section. But some discussion of general group issues must precede identification of some of the more select factors usually associated with teams. This approach seems consistent with the principle of the learning model itself since *team* and *team learning* include and build upon experiences associated with the lower level operation of mere groups. They are cumulative and progressive in that respect, as is the model. Also, as a practical matter, businesses today are more interested in teams than ever. Kinlaw (1991) suggests "team development is being increasingly accepted as the key to regaining and keeping the quality and competitive edge" (p. xix). Katzenbach and Smith (1993) add that for most organizations, regardless of size, "in any situation requiring the real-time combination of multiple skills, experiences, and judgements, a team inevitably gets better results than a collection of individuals operating within confined job roles and responsibilities." (p. 15). Indeed, they go on to point out that most models of "organizations of the future" -- "networked," "clustered," "virtual," and so on -- "...are premised on *teams surpassing individuals as the primary performance unit...*" [original italics] (p. 19). But echoing Senge, they add, "This does not mean that either individual performance or accountability become unimportant. Rather, the challenge for

management increasingly becomes that of balancing the roles of individuals and teams versus displacing or favoring one over the other." I will take up these management questions in the next chapter. For now let me focus on issues surrounding the development of teams.

Relational Context:

In general, work groups and teams are made up of three or more people, possibly as many as, say, twenty-five, but usually between five and twelve. So the complexity of relational issues increases dramatically over the simple dyads discussed in Stages II and III. Now there are several individual frames of reference to consider, and any number of group associations, particularly in today's increasingly diverse workforce.

But there is an additional dimension. Not only does a learner relate to several individuals simultaneously, but the group itself can become a singular entity, developing its own identity based on a number of factors such as purpose, behavioral norms, or task performance (Kowitz and Knutson, 1980). This new challenge, then, requires each member to learn to relate to the group context both as an individual and as a component part of a greater whole.[4]

Symptoms:

Indications of the need for learning at this stage are related to ineffective participation in small groups. This will generally stem from a lack of familiarity with the process of group development and the significance of particular roles taken on by

members. When people come together in groups or teams, there is necessarily a period of adjustment until all members can contribute optimally. This often difficult process requires a sincere commitment to learning about self and others and a willingness to contribute in a selfless way to the shared creativity that is the group and its task. Such an intimate development seldom occurs without some specific training about group process.

Learning Issues:

Stage IV learning comprises two levels. First, the individual must learn to identify with, and experience, the team as an extension of the self, not as some foreign appendage. To do this, there must be some continuity between the individual's belief and value systems, along with the individual's emotional and cognitive skills and preferences, and those emerging for the team. The importance of being familiar with one's own systems (i.e., Stage I learning), as well as the ability to interact effectively with other people's systems (Stages II and III), becomes obvious here. Great frustration can result when mis-matched systems try to operate harmoniously. While some conflict seems to be a natural part of the development and socialization of groups,[5] successful resolution at the team level can require more than mere conformity, cooperation, or agreement. Senge, et al (1994) refers to the concept of *alignment* to identify a higher order of team functioning.

> "Building alignment...is about enhancing a team's capacity to think and act in new synergistic ways, with full coordination and a sense of unity, because team members know each other's hearts and minds. As alignment develops, people don't have to overlook or hide their disagreements; indeed, they develop the capacity to use their disagreements to make their collective understanding richer" (p. 352).

Once this first level starts to function, the team begins to cohere, to become a single unit. Now comes the second level of learning as the team begins to take on a life of its own, with its own values, habits, emotional patterns, and so on. It is a singular system that can set goals and accomplish tasks, solve problems and make decisions. But what is more, a team can learn about itself just as we as individuals can learn about ourselves. And just as self-knowledge is crucial at the individual level, so is it crucial to the team as a whole. In order to facilitate its *task* functions, a team must be able to assess its *processing* functions. Each team member must be able to perceive information, organize it, understand and communicate about it as a function of the team's cognition. They must fully experience and represent the values, goals and aspirations of the team. Only then can the team effectively conduct itself through various tasks.

There is one more issue that comes into play here. It is the issue of leadership. Because the primary relationship focus of Stages I, II, and III is the dyad, or the interaction of two people, leadership issues play less of a role (although thy are not completely absent). But most groups and teams organize around the development of certain roles[6] and leadership can be exercised by any member whose functional role appropriately serves the greater common good at a particular time. Much has been written about leadership styles, techniques, principles, and philosophies. But in the context of our Learning Model, it is the team level, or Stage IV, that provides the most natural context for developing the experiential groundwork for effective leadership practices.

Program Topics:

There are three categories of programs that are associated with various aspects of team learning. The first category is primarily concerned with process issues or how a team can improve its performance. Common program titles here include Team Building and Team Development, also Group Process and possibly some versions of Meeting Skills. The second category is somewhat more task oriented although one quickly learns that, ideally, effective task achievement necessarily involves some attention to process matters. Programs in this category include familiar titles such as Group (or Team) Problem Solving and Group Decision Making, and numerous variations on the topic of Planning. The third category of training programs has to do with the important issues of leadership. As I noted above, this critical area of learning can be approached from many perspectives ranging from specific behavioral skills to broad philosophical concepts. This is reflected in a spectrum of program titles from Facilitation Skills, to Situational Leadership (see Paul Hersey, 1984) to Principle Centered Leadership (see Stephen Covey, 1990). Let me discuss each of these three main program categories in more detail.

Kinlaw (1991) makes a useful distinction between team *building* and team *development*. He suggests that a team building program has the following characteristics: it focuses on the team's deficits, it is short term and intense, and it targets improving relationships on the team itself. In contrast, team development focuses on the team's positive opportunities for continuous improvement, is long term and diffuse, and seeks improvements in all organizational and team systems (p. 24). Differences notwithstanding, both are ultimately concerned with the quality of the team's process. Team building seeks

to elucidate primarily "internal" functioning and relationships, team development addresses relationships outside or beyond the team itself. But in either case, most learning takes place around process issues. For example, Kinlaw offers four Informal Processes: communicating and contacting; responding and adapting; influencing and improving; and appreciating and celebrating.

Development in these so-called "soft" skills can form a necessary foundation for the evolution of a group of workers into a working team, but they are not an end in themselves. Rather they serve as the basis from which team can then perform tasks in ways that yield consistently superior results. But to get to this high level of performance, additional skills must be learned. The second category of programs addresses some of these additional skills.

Sooner or later teams are going to have to produce results, to perform. Katzenbach and Smith claim "teams and performance are inextricably connected" (1993, p. 44). In a recent article, Dunphy and Bryant even extend the performance responsibility factor from the team itself to the entire organization: "from the point of view of most managers, *organizational* [my italics] performance is the ultimate criterion by which the utility of teams must be judged" (1996, pp. 677-678). There seems little disagreement that the *raison d'etre* for teams in organizations is to produce superior results. Programs in this category are specifically designed to help teams get results. They often convey specific tools, techniques, or strategies for such tasks as developing and implementing plans, making appropriate decisions, and solving particular types of problems. In one excellent example (not a specific training program per se), author Ava Butler offers her

techniques in a book entitled Team Think: 72 Ways to Make Good, Smart, Quick Decisions in Any Meeting (1996). It is remarkable to observe that all 72 of her techniques are task or result oriented. Even two techniques with the word "process" in the title, #43 Nominal Group Process and #44 Process Flowcharting, are essentially about tracking results and not about how a team might better understand its interactive processing patterns.

It is important also to note here that there is an important interplay between these three aspects of team performance, i.e., between planning, decision making and problem solving. As a practical matter, all three "skill sets" operate together, one serving the other. Therefore, it can be misleading and even counterproductive to train for improvement in one without acknowledging the role of the other two. Again this is a microcosm of the organic nature of the entire Learning Stages Model. Each aspect is ultimately dependent upon the other and serves the other. Effective planning begets effective problem solving, which begets effective decision making, which begets effective planning, and so on.

The third type of program in this performance category centers on leadership issues. Now leadership is one of today's "hot topics" in the business world. There are many new books and scores of articles dealing with various approaches to, and facets of, leadership. But one of the most compelling concepts, and related attempts at practice, is in the area of so-called *shared leadership*. While the concept is not exactly new it has garnered much contemporary interest because of the changes effecting the authoritative structure and hierarchy in many organization worldwide. As decision and authority

models become less vertical and more horizontal, less authoritarian and more interactive, paradigms of leadership are understandably shifting. Where there was once a perceived need for single-minded, consistent, absolute authority there is now emerging a desire for the flexibility of multiple perspectives and shared influence.[7] The most successful leaders will now be those who understand their role as identifying and supporting the potential of others. This is true not only for the team leader, but, as I will discuss below, for all levels of leadership within an organization.

As a final point, let me reiterate that while it is helpful, even necessary, to address each of these categories of learning separately, i.e., process learning, performance techniques, and leadership, in actual practice these learning and practice fields interact and overlap continuously. Indeed the greatest responsibility of team leadership is to guide this interaction in a harmonious and productive way so as to enable the team to reach its highest level of achievement. As such, a team member/leader does not operate from outside the team, but rather functions as an integral part of the total experience itself.

Competencies and Practices:

As implied by the range of programs applicable to this stage of learning, the spectrum of competencies associated with Stage IV is fairly broad. But it need not be daunting since, again, there is an implicit integration of the categories of learning at this level -- process, performance, and leadership. Therefore competencies can be seen as closely related to each other, and even mutually reinforcing.

Perhaps the most important and challenging competencies and practices will be found in processing aspects of a team's function. The reason for this has to do with the multiplicity of considerations that team members experience, especially in the early stages of a team's development. Several models for group development have been identified in the last fifty years of research. The most familiar of these is posited by Tuckman (1965). It includes four phases: forming, storming, norming, and performing. Others examples are offered by Bales (1950) and Bales and Strodtbeck (1951), Dunphy (1964), Bennis and Shepard (1956 and 1961), and Scheidel and Crowell (1964).[8] What these models share is the conception that all groups experience certain particular stages of development as individual members seek and find their place, role and function within the group. This experience of coming together can, indeed must, be facilitated by careful processing of individuals' perceptions, concerns, and expectations. As Patten has noted, for all would-be successful teams, "one key criteria is the degree of the teambuilding group's process awareness. A thorough understanding of this interpersonal problem-solving process among team members is crucial to the building of a viable team."[9]

Clearly, skills developed in the earlier stages of learning will obviously come into play here. The ability to surface not only one's own issues but also issues, needs, fears, and so on of other members, and to receive this information in as non-judgmental a manner as possible would be fundamental. Over time, however, the challenge becomes how to identify with the totality of the group, or team. As noted above, Senge refers to this phenomenon as *alignment*, "...when a group of people function as a whole" (1990, p. 234). This can be a very elusive experience and, if it is attained at all, it tends to occurs

in degrees, over time. The longer people work together on a particular project, the better their chances of achieving this elusive but fascinating state or quality.

Competencies at this level are as difficult to describe as the phenomenon itself. Team members use comments like "we just got to a point of knowing what we needed to do" (Senge, p. 235). Katzenbach and Smith (1993) note that there is little consistency of actual practices or techniques among high performing teams. Instead, "each of the scores of teams we have researched...has applied a unique blend of actions, events, and decisions to achieve higher performance" (p. 109). They do, however, offer a set of eight "approaches" that seem common among teams that achieve exceptional results (see pp. 119-127). While these approaches seem as much dispositional as practical, they can still be instructive here.

1. Establish urgency and direction.
2. Select team members based on skills and skill potential, not personality.
3. Pay particular attention to first meetings and actions.
4. Set some clear rules of behavior.
5. Set and seize upon a few immediate performance-oriented tasks and goals.
6. Challenge the group regularly with fresh facts and information.
7. Spend lots of time together.
8. Exploit the power of positive feedback, recognition, and reward.

With respect to task issues, competencies and practices can be more clearly identified as they usually relate to specific tools or strategies associated with planning, decision making or problem solving. There is in fact an endless array of such tools available to teams that are in performance mode and need to accomplish specific tasks. Again, Butler's book cited above offers 72 such tools or techniques. Another author, Edward de Bono, has made a life's career out of developing strategies that enable

individuals and teams to identify problems, develop potential solutions, and implement decisions. One of his most successful schemes is called Six Thinking Hats.[10] Based largely on his work with some of the world's largest business organizations, De Bono has posited six aspects of processing, especially cognitive processing, relevant to problem solving and decision making in groups. Each aspect is represented by a different colored hat and group or team members can identify their input, and the perceived need of the group at any time based on the categorization associated with the hats. The various aspects are as follows:

White Hat:	Facts and figures
Red Hat:	Emotions and feelings
Black Hat:	Pessimism and logical-negative
Yellow Hat:	Optimism and speculative-positive
Green Hat:	Creativity and innovation
Blue Hat:	Control and metacognition

According to de Bono, effective use of the strategies associated with these categories requires some practice and experience but his often unorthodox methods, including many other strategies besides these, have found their adherents in both educational institutions and business organizations around the world.

Still another source for such tools to facilitate group and team competencies, whether toward task or process, is an annual publication by Pfeiffer and Company, entitled (most recently) The 1996 Annual. This now two-volume edition is intended primarily for consultants, trainers and Human Resource professionals and offers a wide range of training resources including experiential learning activities, evaluative inventories, and

scholarly papers. Their cumulative Index, representing 27 years of publication, lists materials on the following topics and sub-topics, among others:

Individual Development:
Sensory awareness; self disclosure; sex roles; diversity; planning.
Communication:
Building trust; conflict; feedback; listening; styles.
Problem Solving:
Generating alternatives; information sharing; consensus; action planning.
Groups/Teams:
How groups work; roles; competition/collaboration; negotiating; intergroup issues.
Leadership:
Ethics; motivation; diversity/stereotyping; styles.

It is unrealistic and unnecessary to expect that competent team participants be schooled in all these techniques and activities. Indeed it is inherent in the team experience that each member contribute different but complimentary skills and expertise. It can be said, however, that there should be at least some familiarity with tools that will facilitate each of the three aspects of task orientation, planning, problem solving and decision making. Here, no less than anywhere in this model, it should be clear that the capacity of the team as a whole to realize its true potential is conditioned on the mature contribution of team members and their ability to act in the best interest of the team.

And finally, the competencies and practices of leadership are perhaps the least definable, and therefore the most elusive, of all. But this lack of certainty is not for want of trying on the part of many disciplines from philosophy to pop-psychology. But, as Fischer (1980, p. 189) has noted, "it is amazing that so many people could study one phenomenon and gain such little understanding of it." Still, despite such cynicism, even *he* eventually provides a summary of practices associated with group or team leaders. This

includes: being verbally active (engaged), demonstrating communicative skill, consistently initiating themes, seeking opinions and information from others, clearly stating opinions in a persuasive manner, adopting an informed and objective argumentative stance on issues.

Kinlaw (1991), too, points out the disparity between the "enormous amount of information...available on leadership and leadership theories" on the one hand, and the deficiency of theories "that adequately address the subject of the leadership of superior work teams that do real work...." (p. 131) on the other. Like Fisher, he offers some suggestions of his own. For him, the practice of leadership in teams means: leading through teamwork, staying focused both on team development and team performance (i.e., process and task), and where appropriate, acting as initiator, model and coach.[11]

Clearly, much more work needs to be done in this area. In their summary of recent literature on leadership, Hare and Kent (1994) can conclude nothing more specific than, "effective leader style is related to the situation."[12]

Role of CCT:

In Stages I, II and III the preponderance of our discussion of thinking skills and practices has focused on the more reflective aspects of critical thinking. The simpler relational contexts associated with those stages afford many opportunities for clarification of one's own interests, motivations, values and those of, ideally, one other person. But the reality of today's work environment requires that, no matter what our position in an organization, we interact with many groups with different functions, diverse membership, and complex challenges. Sooner or later, workers are going to have to participate in small

group activities and this will mean using all the cognitive skills developed through Stage I, II and III experiences, and expanding them still further into the generative realms of creativity and innovation. As we will see, this is no small undertaking.

For a starting point, Richard Paul (1990) provides a convenient summary of "elements" of critical thinking. These include the following:

1) beliefs
2) inferences
3) reasons
4) evidence
5) experiences
6) assumptions
7) ideas/concepts
8) purposes/goals
9) issues
10) implications
11) consequences
12) points of view[13]

These elements hold the key to many reflective practices associated with critical thinking, whether used metacognitively by an individual, or in the process of an exchange with another person. But these same elements are also necessary in the development of group process, as the group inquires into its own evolution. Group or team members must continue to inquire into their own beliefs, experiences, assumptions, and so on, and they must continue to seek understanding of other members' issues. In addition, they must consider the purpose of the team's existence, its task or function, and must work towards the realization of that purpose. This shift of emphasis towards problem solving, planning and innovation will lean more squarely on the generative aspects of cognition and require a new set of practices.

It is interesting to note that just as cognitive patterns or habits can interfere with effective critical thinking, so too can patterned processing inhibit the generation of new ideas. Senge (1990) refers to *mental models* that we employ in our everyday

interpretations of daily events. Schank (1988) uses the term *scripts* to describe the "prototypical cases" of things and events which we have stored in our memory. Engaging these scripts as we encounter a situation actually "provides us with a way of not thinking."[14] Therefore, the generation of ideas, or creativity in any form, requires somehow circumventing these scripts.

To accomplish this, numerous tools and techniques are available to would-be innovators, some more familiar than others. Some of these would include the now ubiquitous practice of *brainstorming*, where the more ideas are generated, the more ideas are generated! Withholding judgement is the key to making brainstorming work. Various associative practices are also available such as de Bono's *lateral thinking.*[15] Another tool can be *role playing*, i.e., learning to look at a situation or problem from a particular point of view. And of course there is the invaluable practice of asking questions. Here, avoiding so-called *closed-ended* questions is crucial because these tend to lead to limited, and limiting, responses. *Open-ended* questions, in contrast, can lead to unanticipated developments and therefore a greater yield of creative result.

While no single summary of idea-producing tools, strategies or suggestions can pretend to be comprehensive, Schank (1988) provides a list of ten *maxims* that can be somewhat instructive. I have summarized these somewhat humorous points below.

- *Maxim 1. Look for anomalies.* Identify things that do not work and begin to think about them. Thinking up a good problem is an important step on the road to its solution.
- *Maxim 2. Listen.* Pay attention to what is being told and what is not being told.
- *Maxim 3. Find data.* Observe the world and its events. Don't fall prey to scripts.
- *Maxim 4. Classify, and invent new classifications.* Be ready to abandon old categories that are no longer useful.

- *Maxim 5. Make rash generalizations.* As you and others raise more and more questions about your generalization, the process of elaboration, defense, conjecture, refutation will lead to recategorization and, hence, more ideas.
- *Maxim 6. Explain.* Look for explanations for things that are wrong or different.
- *Maxim 7. Refuse to learn the rules.* Rules are death to creativity. Practice reasoned rebellion.
- *Maxim 8. Reject old explanations. Ask why.* Learn to recognize standard explanations, then do not accept them.
- *Maxim 9. Let you mind wander.* Much originality comes from unrestrained and undirected thinking.
- *Maxim 10. Fail early and often.* Behind every creative success story is a history of failure.
- *Maxim 11. Reject all the above maxims.*[16]

CHAPTER 6

STAGE V: MANAGEMENT PRACTICES: EMPOWERING SELF AND OTHERS

The management of change, how to treat today what was unknown yesterday and how to anticipate tomorrow what cannot still be understood from the evidences of today, is now the supreme test of "how to manage."[1]

But who exactly is a manager these days? How do we know one when we see one?[2]

Comments:

Management practices may be the most dynamic area of learning in all organizational systems. As organizational structures have evolved, so has the role of management. Where once there were many layers of authority and power between front-line production and top level executives, there now are few. Where managers once could direct with absolute authority over their reports and workers, there is now a demand for shared planning and decision making. And the once predictable pattern of employee loyalty and conformity has been replaced by independence and entrepreneurship. Consider the significant contextual shift experienced by managers at Levi-Strauss within the last decade. Their quality enhancement process yielded the following changes:

Old Paradigm	New Paradigm
Economies of *scale* as basis for improvement logic.	Economy of *time* as basis for improvement logic.
Quality involves trade-offs.	Quality is a "religion." No compromise.

Doers are separate from thinkers.	Doers must also be thinkers.
Assets are things.	Assets are people.
Profit is the primary business goal.	Customer satisfaction is primary business goal.
Hierarchical organizations. Goal is to please the boss.	Problem-solving network organization. Goal is to please internal and external customer.
Measure to judge operational results.	Measure to help people make operational improvements.[3]

Such developments have only increased the challenges facing those taking on management roles in today's organizations. While many of the traditional expectations of managers are still in place, particularly with respect to the technical expertise associated with a department, division or function within a company, many new skills are now critical to the role of manager. As if keeping abreast of developments around technical matters were not demanding enough in this information age, managers today must demonstrate high levels of interpersonal skills as well as a dynamic repertoire of leadership abilities.

Now, there is no shortage of research and theory in the area of organizational management. Since the mid-nineteenth century, management practices have been the subject of much scrutiny and theorizing.[4] Indeed the four fundamental management *functions* most frequently described in today's literature - planning, organizing, leading, and controlling - were originally posited by French Industrialist Henri Fayol, in the early part of this century. Koontz (1986) has added a fifth one, staffing, noting that "staffing ...affects leading and controlling" (p. 277).[5] Mintzberg (1975) has approached management analysis from the perspective of managers' *roles*, that is, what managers actually do. He has identified ten managerial roles including three *interpersonal* roles,

three *informational* roles, and four *decision* roles. And finally, Griffin (1984) summarizes what he considers the five necessary skill categories with which managers must operate: technical, interpersonal, conceptual, diagnostic, and analytic. Noting the shifting ratios between these skills, he suggests that the requisite skill level in each of these categories will differ according to an individual's position within the organization, i.e., between front-line supervisor, middle manager, or top-level manager.

Add to these complexities of management functions, roles and skills the dynamic context of today's global marketplace and accelerating technological developments and it is easy to understand why organizational management is now one of the most challenging of all careers. Perhaps Champy is correct when he points out, "management has joined the ranks of the dangerous professions."[6]

Relational Context:

Managers interact with others in a myriad of functions and contexts: dyads, small groups, large groups, informally, formally; to plan, organize, lead, or evaluate; to obtain formation, to make recommendations, to resolve conflict, to make decisions. The list goes on. As such, the relational context of individuals with management responsibilities can only be described as fluid. Managers must be able to change hats, change focus, and even change direction frequently.

As for the learning model, all previous levels of activity, from Stage I metacognition to Stage IV team development, continue to be relevant in the sphere of management. But a manager's contextual scope must expand still further to include

ultimately an entire division or department within an organization. Depending on the size of the organization and one's position within it, this might involve relatively few people, say 15-20, or it might involve several hundred people. Naturally the complexity of interactions will vary accordingly but there are two distinct considerations associated with Stage V that have not been encountered before. First, there is the contextual consideration of multi-group interactions. Whereas Stage IV deals with participation in a single group or team, Stage V learning is for managers who generally interact in several group contexts every day. Griffin (1984, p. 446) described the typical business day of a senior executive of a Houston-based company. His schedule of meetings included no fewer than nine different business group contexts. Most managers must as a matter of course participate in numerous group settings and often facilitate the interplay between different groups within their purview.

The second consideration associated with Stage V is the role of leader that typically accompanies management positions in organizations. By the very nature of their position, managers wield some degree of power, influence and authority, the three basic components of leadership (Griffin, 1984). Individuals must learn to exercise these aspects of leadership effectively, responsibly and, particularly in today's dynamic business contexts, flexibly. As long ago as 1958, Tannenbaum and Schmidt proposed a seven-step continuum of decision-making options for leaders, from completely authoritarian at one extreme, to completely collaborative at the other.[7] This adaptable, situational approach has been revived more recently by Hersey (1984).[8] But as with the practice of management itself, leadership is a multifaceted activity which I will discuss further below.

Symptoms:

Poor management practices can show up overtly in measures of success such as new product viability or department growth, or it can be less obvious as in the low morale or depleted spirit of workers. Insofar as management is about guiding and motivating people, symptoms of learning needs will manifest themselves through communication and leadership issues. Of course, part of management is about abstractions such as planning, generating numbers, and evaluating departmental or divisional success. But even such concepts must involve communication, understanding and agreement, so the actual practice of management is both abstract, i.e. technical, and relational, i.e. interpersonal. Indeed, it involves a gamut of practices from the development of ideas, often in the form of goals, to the effective communication of those ideas in such a way as to enlist, if not inspire, the support of others, to the creation of a stimulating and supportive environment which enables workers to pursue the realization of those ideas. An individual manager's skill level may falter anywhere along this continuum and appropriate learning will be necessary to remedy any problematic situation.

Learning Issues:

It is through the five functions of management -- planning, organizing, staffing, controlling and leading -- that Stage V learning issues can be identified. They provide the framework for all practical application of management activities. Let us look briefly at each of these.

Koontz (1986) advises "*planning logically precedes* the execution of all other managerial functions" [original italics] (p. 74). Planning is the method of mapping a route from the present into the future towards the direction of the identified goals. At a minimum, it involves establishing goals and objectives, developing tactical strategies for realizing those goals, and implementing decision-making strategies for evaluating and selecting appropriate courses of action. The process can be abstract, as related to organizational purpose or mission, or it can be broadly based, such as with strategic planning, or it can be specific as in tactical planning. No matter the focus, an effective planning process must be related to clearly identified goals. And ideally, managers must learn to align these various goals so that they become mutually reinforcing (Senge, 1990).

The second function of management is to organize. Koontz (1986) is again helpful: "the reason for organizing is to make human cooperation effective" (p. 164). Issues here include method and process of departmentalization, establishment of an appropriate structural mechanism for authority and accountability, and developing methods of coordination between organizational units.

Staffing is generally associated with human resource management and development. Sub-functions here can include recruiting, selection, placement, compensation, training and development, and performance appraisal. Let me point out that I do not list these various sub-functions just to provide a shopping list of activities. Each of these responsibilities involves a particular knowledge base as well as a set of evaluative and implementation skills. Furthermore, Fombrun, Tichy and DeVanna have devised what they refer to as a strategic approach to staffing as well as human resource

development. They suggest that, "approaching the staffing process from a strategic perspective requires an integrated interpretation of the relationships between the various levels of human resource concerns in the [organizational] planning process."[9]

Steps in exercising the controlling function include establishing standards, measuring performance, rating performance against standards, developing and implementing strategies to improve performance where necessary. This process might relate to any aspect of an organization's activities: product or service, market segment and placement, individual worker performance, financial investments, and so on.

The fifth function of management, leadership, is perhaps the most elusive, at least as it relates to learning issues. This is not for a lack of research done on the subject, nor a lack of theories posited. Ironically, it is precisely because the subject has been so much studied, and so many perspectives offered, that students of leadership must necessarily be confused. Indeed, this paper itself is in some ways yet another contribution to the increasing tide of leadership development literature. But Posner and Kouzes attempt to put all this in perspective:

> Leadership is a reciprocal relationship between those who choose to lead and those who decide to follow. Any discussion of leadership must attend to the dynamics of this relationship. Strategies, tactics, skills, and practices are empty unless we understand the fundamental human aspirations that connect leaders and their constituents.[10]

Based on this perspective, learning about leadership must include, if not prioritize, learning about relationships.

Program Topics:

Once again, we note the cumulative aspect of this model. It is not an exaggeration to suggest that every program topic noted thus far in Stages I through IV could find its way into a management development program. First, if management is about leading, and leading is about relationships, then the most effective managers will be well schooled in the interpersonal practices, both analytical and creative, of Stages II, III and IV, as these address many relational issues encountered in today's organizations. Secondly, as Kouzes and Posner point out in their earlier work (1987), "ultimately leadership development is a process of self-development."[11] Stage I learning lays the groundwork for this self-development. So program topics for management development could, and probably should, include most of the topics from the earlier stages.

Beyond these first four stages, potential skill requirements increase exponentially. For example, Finch (1985) identifies over 300 management techniques, or tools, available to the modern manager, although in his introduction, he reassuringly concedes, "developments have long passed the stage at which any one person could expect to be proficient in all of them."[12] And in order to further assist the daunted manager, he offers four different classification systems with which users might approach this compilation in order to find those strategies that are most appropriate to the manager's current need. I summarize them here because these headings represent many further examples of possible program topics for Stage V learning.

By Org. Function:	By Objective:	By User:	By Resource Problem:
Marketing	Detection	Indust.Engineering	Materials
Buying/Purch.	Evaluation	Operations	Personnel
Factory Product.	Improvement	Mgmt. Accountants	Equip./Machines
Personnel	Optimization	Statisticians	Finished Products
R&D/Engin./Tech.	Specification	Forecasters	Cash/Costs/Money
Acct./Admin.	Control	Behav. Scientists	Ideas/Information
Distribution	Communication	Training Officers	Building/Plant
Top Management	Implementation	Special Functions	General
General	Demonstration	General Mgmt. Syst.	
	Systems Study		

As can be seen, there are numerous possible groupings of these categories that could result in particular program configurations. For example, a program might be designed for the marketing department (Organizational Function) around demonstration skills (Objective). Or the operations manager (User) may need to improve her control skills (Objective) with respect to finished product quality (Resource Problem).

One final way of looking at program topics at this level is through the five management functions identified above: planning, organizing, staffing, controlling, and leading. Each of these categories would include a range of sub-topics, most of which have been introduced in the earlier stages of the learning model, but could now be revisited in the larger context of a manager's purview. The point is that continuous learning now becomes the norm as individuals with management responsibilities must constantly strive to keep informed of and trained in appropriate strategies to facilitate the effective realization of organizational mission and purpose.

Competencies and Practices:

Earlier (p. 70) I noted Griffin's (1984) five necessary skill categories with which managers must operate: technical, interpersonal, conceptual, diagnostic, and analytic. I also noted the shifting relationship between these skills depending on an individual's position within the organization, front-line supervisor, middle manager, or top-level manager.

By reordering these skills slightly, and juxtaposing them against the five *managerial functions* already discussed, we create a useful matrix as suggested by Table 6-1. This table can serve in a number of ways to help identify the emphasis of competencies and practices relevant to particular managerial problems. For example, a planning problem (column 1) will tend to require greater emphasis on competencies related to concept development or abstract thinking (area 1,1), and analysis (area 1,2), and less on interpersonal skills (area 1,5). Viewed horizontally, a manager with weak interpersonal skills (row 5) may be more like to prove ineffective in relation to leadership practices (area 5,5) than in, say, planning (area 1,5) or organizing (area 2,5).

I have not empirically tested all these relationships and am not suggesting that all problems of one type, say, leadership will always be resolved by emphasis on certain competencies, say, interpersonal. The particular skill set of any one individual (as identified by appropriate testing and observation) will dictate which competencies may need improvement. In addition, a manager's position within an organization, his level and department, will also help identify which configuration of competencies and practices will

Function>> Skills V V	Planning	Organizing	Controlling	Staffing	Leading
Conceptual	1,1	1,2	1,3	1,4	1,5
Analytical	2,1	2,2	2,3	2,4	2,5
Technical	3,1	3,2	3,3	3,4	3,5
Diagnostic	4,1	4,2	4,3	4,4	4,5
Inter-Personal	5,1	5,2	5,3	5,4	5,5

Table 6-1. Managerial Skills and Function Matrix.

be most relevant. The table is intended to help organize some of the myriad skills today's managers might be expected to demonstrate.

Role of CCT:

Peters (1987) discusses the need for both critical thinking and creative thinking in the repertory of skills cultivated by today's managers. With respect to critical thinking, he includes: 1) consider and validate the source of information; 2) non-judgmental open-mindedness; 3) evaluate meanings; 4) require and evaluate evidence; 5) the use of logic and reasoning in formulating one's own position or beliefs; 6) consider the implications and consequences that may result from implementing certain plans; 7) examine *pre*sumptions, or what is more commonly referred to as assumptions.[13] While his

approach to creative thinking is less-well articulated, he does encourage the use of some of the more frequently encountered practices such as brainstorming and (De Bono's) lateral thinking, as well as some of the more systematic approaches to generating ideas or solutions such as data-combination strategies.

Brookfield (1987) goes further and cites several studies that found a correlation between activities associated with the exercise of critical thinking and various managerial contexts and practices. As one example, Neumann (1986) lists several instances where critical thinking capacities are necessary: planning a strategic financial maneuver, redesigning a complex organizational structure, analyzing seeming unrelated problems to discover causal commonalities, launching a daring marketing tactic, and balancing spontaneous intuitive decisions with rational calculation of their consequences.

One of Brookfields key points emphasizes the relationship between thinking and action, especially for managers. As he points out, "practitioners [managers] frequently do not have the opportunity for introspective episodes during which they can reflect on the usefulness of various responses to crises."[14] They must learn to "act thinkingly" (Weick, 1983). Given the contextual complexity that surrounds most managerial positions, this must involve using both reflective and generative aspects of thinking. "Critical reflection in action...is intuitive, improvisational, and creative" (p. 155).

Stage V learning, then, adds two considerations to critical and creative thinking. First, the urgent, complex and often ambiguous context of management requires a greater synthesis of critical and creative thinking into a more singular process, convergent and

divergent processing operating in close and harmonious proximity. Secondly, managerial contexts are contexts of application: applied thinking in action. Effective managerial practice requires a high degree of virtuosity in these practices.

CHAPTER 7

STAGE VI: THE ART AND PRACTICE OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

I have come to believe that the art of executive leadership is above all a taste of paradox, a talent for ambiguity, the capacity to hold contradictory propositions comfortably in a mind that relishes complexity.[1]

Leadership development is ultimately self-development.[2]

Comments:

If management practices represent the most dynamic area of learning in organizations, then leadership practices of top-level executives may be the most enigmatic. With their variety of titles -- CEO, COO, CFO, president or director or chairperson -- these people occupy the desks where the organizational buck stops. They operate of necessity in the context of the big picture and must, intentionally or otherwise, personify the entire organization. We have encountered leadership issues in Stages IV and V, and certain qualities and characteristics of leadership can be said to be universal, regardless of the context (e.g., competent subject knowledge, open and deliberate communication practices, contextually appropriate use of power and influence, etc.). It is now time to consider the role of organizational leadership with, to paraphrase Harlan Cleveland's comment above, all its paradox, ambiguity, contradiction, and complexity.

The influence of top-level leaders is crucial to a company's growth and survival, particularly in dynamic times such as these. The skill with which leaders exercise this

influence effects all aspects of organizational life. As Davis (1984) explains, a company's "guiding beliefs are invariably set at the top and transmitted down through the ranks. Any effort to change them must be led by the CEO."[3]

But leadership requires more than just internally oriented skills such as identifying beliefs, values and goals and overseeing their realization through organizational practices. Effective leaders must also be perceptive and sensitive to external changes in areas such as competition, customer expectations, materials availability, and new technological developments. Hammer (1996) describes the chilling fate of three of America's corporate giants, IBM, General Motors, and Sears, who were not so responsive. In 1983, these companies sat at the pinnacle of their respective industries, seemingly invincible. But within ten years, by May, 1993, *Forbes* magazine ran a cover story entitled "Corporate Dinosaurs," describing how these former giants were floundering amidst changing market conditions. New players such as Apple Computer, Nissan and Honda, and Wal-Mart typified a new breed of company, one that was more innovative in its product development as well as its organizational structure, and one that was infinitely more responsive to the expectations, even demands, of customers.[4] In a rapidly changing world, the steadfast and predictable were being outpaced by the flexible and innovative. As a recent advertisement for Chrysler products heralds, "the rules have changed."

Given such impending dynamics, organizational leaders face what Bolman and Deal (1991) call "a leadership paradox: how to maintain integrity and mission without making their organizations rigid and intractable."[5] To successfully navigate today's volatile tides, organizational leaders must, at the very least, think strategically and

systemically; and they must be able to communicate with equal competence whether one-to-one or one-to-one thousand, always understanding the intricacies of organizational culture and their own complex and influential role in it. They are ultimately visionaries, guides, exemplars, and stewards.

The Relational Context:

The primary context for the leader's activities, then, is the entire organization. The oft-repeated metaphor of "taking the helm" is entirely appropriate here as it relates to this level of leadership, and not for one reason but for two. First, a ship's captain must at all times be sensitive to the inner workings of his or her vessel. Every observation is focused on the total operation, and every decision will likewise affect the entire ship. But secondly, as our three corporate giants learned above, a ship's captain must pay close and careful attention to the ever-changing currents in which the ship moves. Indeed, navigational adjustments are more likely to be dictated by external events than internal. So while the contextual focus of top-level executives embraces an entire organization, the wise leader also recognizes the importance of continuously sounding events outside the bounds of the organization itself.

It is also important to note that there are several aspects to this contextual level. For example, leaders can attend to the physical features of the company, its buildings, their design and location. Then there is the matter of organizational structure, how functional components are interconnected. Or a leader might choose to address issues related to the financial aspects of her enterprise. While I cannot get into all these varied considerations

that fall under the purview of organizational leaders, there is one aspect that warrants further mention, particularly where this paper has addressed the human side of organizational development more than any other. I am referring to the moral and ethical dimension that effectively permeates all aspects of organizational culture and behavior. While every participant in any community bears some responsibility as a moral agent, top-level leaders set the critical example that will likely be adopted by others. Bolman and Deal (1991) also address the moral dimensions of management and leadership. For them, judgements in this arena represent "issues that managers need to consider and that should be part of an on-going conversation both in schools and at work" (p. 223). However, as to the question of how to incorporate this ethical dimension into the daily life of organizational culture, they caution that "the solution is not for organizations to impose a narrow ethical framework on their employees....But organizations can take a moral stance. They can make it clear that they expect ethical behavior, and they can validate the importance of dialogue about the moral issues facing managers" (p. 223).

Kouzes and Posner (1987) point to the work of John Gardner, former Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare and founding chairperson of Common Cause, who has identified four moral goals of leadership:

1. Releasing human potential.
2. Balancing the needs of the individual and the community.
3. Defending the fundamental values of the community.
4. Instilling in individuals a sense of initiative and responsibility.[6]

Goals such as these present both an obligation and an opportunity for those who would lead. As such, this important aspect of the relational context of Stage VI learning must

not be ignored. Ultimately, the question is not whether organizations will practice ethics, but what kind of ethics they will practice.

Symptoms:

From the broadest perspective, weak or ineffective leadership can manifest itself in two seemingly paradoxical ways. First, an organization can lack a sense of direction, or even a sense of identity. Much of the recent interest in developing corporate mission and vision statements is a reflection of this long-standing lack of clarity in organizations. In addition, leaders can fail in their reading of the current environment, particularly with respect to its implications for the future. This is not to say that organizational leaders need to become clairvoyant, but an eye toward the implication of market tendencies can go a long way towards helping an organization take advantage of developing trends, whether technological, demographic, political, environmental.

From a more immediate perspective, leaders can fail by virtue of their inability to effectively tap the positive feelings of others. Kouzes and Posner (1993) note the ten most frequent themes associated with how people feel when working with leaders they admire. They report feeling:

valued	capable
motivated	supported
enthusiastic	powerful
challenged	respected
inspired	proud[7]

These qualities of feeling cannot be forced or coerced in people. They must be cultivated by leaders who value and trust in those around them. Absent this, leaders and their organizations will continuously struggle to achieve even small successes and there is little or no chance for excellent performance.

Learning Issues:

Learning issues in Stage VI of our model are necessarily very broad. Indeed, learning to think and act in this broad frame is itself a challenge for many top-level executives. There are, of course, numerous systems and approaches to organizational development and change, each with its own particular set of steps and guidelines. Leaders cannot and should not expect to master them all. But there are certain core components that appear to be common to most such systems and at the very least organizational leaders should familiarize themselves with these. Let us look at one approach in order to extract some of these core elements.

Whether circumstances call for the maintenance of the status quo, the revitalization of ideals gone flat, or the partial or complete overhaul of organizational structures and systems, leaders must become skilled at identifying the appropriate need, then guiding and supporting others along the mutually agreed-upon course or action. In cases where significant change is called for, Kotter (1996) offers a fairly detailed eight-stage process (p. 21). These stages include:

1) Establishing a sense of urgency
2) Creating the guiding coalition
3) Developing a vision and strategy

4) Communicating the change
5) Empowering broad-based action
6) Generating short-term wins
7) Consolidating gains and producing more change
8) Anchoring new approaches in the culture

But these stages and their components (not listed here) essentially represent a refinement and elaboration of a simpler process comprising three steps: 1) establishing direction, 2) aligning people, and 3) motivating and inspiring people (p. 26). I think it is fair to say that learning issues associated with Stage VI can be summed up in these three categories. *Establishing direction* can include being sensitive to internal and external developments and opportunities, creating a vision through a shared process of the organization's role into the future, and developing strategies to carry the organization towards that future. *Aligning people* requires communicating the vision throughout the organization and coordinating the input and support of groups and individuals who must implement the strategies. *Motivation and inspiration* can take the form of empowerment to make strategic decisions and adjustments, rewards which are commensurate with responsibility, and perhaps most importantly, through example, i.e., the example of openness and continuous learning.

Wheatly (1992) makes a strong argument for the importance of organizational leaders learning to operate in a world of chaos. Ironically, this means more often than not allowing organizational systems to be self-organizing. In other words, leaders must learn to get out of the way. She acknowledges the importance of a few "simple governing principles: guiding visions, strong values, organizational beliefs," then suggests that it is "the leader's task to communicate them, to keep them ever-present and clear, and then

allow individuals in the system their random, sometimes chaotic-looking meanderings" (p. 133). She summarizes the intended net effect of this approach with the following formulation: "fluctuations, randomness, and unpredictability at the local level, in the presence of guiding or self-referential principles, cohere over time into definite and predictable form" (p. 133).

Whether leaders incorporate the planning suggestions of thinkers like Kotter or the more philosophical musings of advisers such as Margaret Wheatley, the learning issues they will face are both expansive and elusive, always evolving in response to, and occasionally in anticipation of, the continuously shifting forces of internal and external environments.

Program Topics:

There have been many approaches to organizational design, renewal, or change. But in the current decade, three systems have proven more influential, though not necessarily more effective, than all others. These are 1) *Total Quality Management* (TQM), particularly as espoused by such proponents as Deming (see esp. 1982, 1986) and Juran (1964, 1988, 1992), and Crosby (1979, 1984); 2) *Reengineering*, primarily the product of Hammer and Champy (1993; also Champy, 1995, and Hammer, 1996); and 3) the concept of *Learning Organizations*, with Senge (1990) the most recent champion. While technically these are organization-wide initiatives, not programs per se, all of these approaches have spawned seemingly endless education and training programs, nationally

and internationally, intended to bring learners "up to speed" with their various methods of implementation. Let me briefly outline the basic tenets of each.

Total Quality Management

TQM evolved primarily from Deming's and Juran's work in Japan during the 1950's. Deming's interest in quality control can be traced back to the 1940's, but his suggestions for organizational and managerial reform were rejected in the US. Japan, on the other hand, embraced many of his ideas particularly in light of its post WWII need for economic renewal. In the early 1980's, the reality of world competition finally began to dawn on leaders of US companies and Deming and his cohorts began to find greater appreciation of their work. He eventually posited 14 somewhat vague principles with which organizational change agents could guide their efforts at quality improvements. These were later followed by another seven, only slightly more specific.

Juran, too, offered his sets of guidelines based on the three focal points of quality planning, quality control, and quality improvement. He then provides nine tenets for identifying who one's customers are, and ten steps that must be implemented if true quality improvement is to be achieved. Crosby goes even further along this route by offering his own 14-point program, a 30-block Quality Maturity Grid for assessing managers' progress toward improved quality, a 10-point Management Style Evaluation program, and finally a 6-ingredient Quality Vaccine with three principles for its administration.

Despite these rather platitudinous developments, the TQM movement has contributed significantly to the increased consciousness of organizational behavior in several areas. These would include:

- the need for a less hierarchical, more flexible organizational structure
- a focus on continuous improvement of systems and processes
- supervisors and managers become facilitators, coaches and supportive leaders
- supervisor-subordinate relationships become more interdependent
- emphasis on work in teams
- workers are considered assets and training is an investment
- customer interests become paramount as the measure of quality
- the need for fact-based evaluation systems to measure progress[8]

Reengineering

Reengineering burst on the organizational development scene in 1993 with Hammer and Champy's book, *Reengineering the Corporation*. The subtitle to their book - *A Manifesto for Business Revolution* - suggests the fervor with which they approach their perceived mission. They begin by identifying the "three forces" that are "driving today's companies deeper and deeper into territory...executives and managers find frighteningly unfamiliar" (p. 17). Dubbed the three C's, these include: *customers*, armed with more data, greater expectations, and more choices; *competition*, stimulated by falling international trade barriers, technological advancements, and innovative start-up ventures with little of the cultural "baggage" of many of the old stalwart organizations; and *change*, the now ironic constant, greatly accelerated, resulting in shorter, more compressed life-cycles for virtually all products and services. They later provide a somewhat different and broader summary of the problems they wish to address with so-called reengineering. This

includes "inflexibility, unresponsiveness, the absence of customer focus, an obsession with activity rather than result, bureaucratic paralysis, lack of innovation, [and] high overhead" (p. 30).

After initially defining reengineering simply as "starting over," the authors then provide a more formal definition: "Reengineering is the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service, and speed" (p. 32). The main component of their approach, and the way it attempts to differ from other systematic approaches to organizational change is its emphasis on *process*. "Task-oriented jobs are obsolete. Instead, companies must organize around *process*" [original] (1993, p. 27). And again, "the problems that afflict modern organizations are not task problems. They are process problems" (1996, p. 5). This idea of process is distinguished from jobs, people and organizational structures (i.e., hierarchical relationships), all of which, according to the authors, have been the subject of organizational change efforts before, and with dubious results. After processes are identified as corresponding to "natural business activities" (1993, p. 118), Hammer and Champy offer the following as examples:

- manufacturing: procurement to shipment
- product development: concept to prototype
- sales: prospect to order
- order fulfillment: order to payment
- service: inquiry to resolution.[9]

Finally, they offer the following nine characteristics of the successfully reengineered organization:

- eliminate fragmentation that comes with over-dependence on task specialization
- workers make decisions and monitor their own QC requirements and effectiveness
- steps in a process are performed in their natural order, which is not always absolutely linear
- processes can have multiple versions in different market locations
- work is performed where it maker the most sense
- checks and controls are performed only to the extent it makes economic sense
- minimize reconciliation points between business units
- use of "case manager" as buffer between complex processes and customer
- hybrid centralized/decentralized operations

Organizational Learning

The third and perhaps most popular organizational change initiative of the 1990's is generally referred to as *Organizational Learning*. Although its roots can be traced to the earlier work of Chris Argyris (1978), this approach was popularized by Peter Senge in 1990 with his book *The Fifth Discipline*, and its follow-up (Senge, et al, 1994), *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook*. Senge describes a learning organization as one "that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future" (1990, p. 14). This is done through a combination of "adaptive learning" and "generative learning." More specifically, Senge's vision of a learning organization is built upon five fundamental tenets: personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking. Ironically, these tenets must be practiced by individuals if an organization is learn. In other words, individual learning fosters organizational learning. I will briefly review each of these five practices below.

Personal mastery is equated with personal growth and continual learning. "In order to be masterful in the outside world [i.e., in the workplace], it is necessary to start the practice of mastery deeply within oneself" (1994, p. 231). Those engaged in such a pursuit seek to "continually clarify what is important" and to "continually learn how to see current reality more clearly" (1990, p. 141). This involves developing a personal vision of a desired future, learning to see clearly one's present reality, and using the "creative tension" the links the present with the future. This creative tension then becomes the energy source for all choices and activities that propel one towards the desired future. Senge later elaborates on these practices by identifying other aspects of the process: developing a more systemic view of the world, learning how to reflect on tacit assumptions, expressing one's own vision and listening to others' visions, and joint inquiry into different people's views of current reality (1990, p. 173).

Mental models are describe as "the images, assumptions, and stories which we carry in our minds of ourselves, other people, institutions, and every aspect of the world (1994, p. 235). These deeply ingrained models can effect how we perceive the world and therefore how we choose to act. Learning to work with mental models requires the cultivation of two skills: reflection and inquiry. In this framework, reflection serves to slow down our thinking processes to allow us to become more aware of how we form our models of the world. Inquiry is practiced in conversations where participants openly share views and develop knowledge about each other's assumptions (1990, p. 191 and 1994, p. 237). Senge stresses the importance of learning to identify mental models at all levels of

an organization, from the individual to the organization itself. He provides several examples where "corporate" mental models have interfered with effective action planning.

"Shared visions emerge from personal visions" (1990, p. 211). In the same way that personal visions can energize an individual's actions, shared vision can align the enthusiasm, commitment, and sense of purpose for an entire organization. One key to realizing this potential is effective communication. Those who hold a vision, no matter where they reside in a company's structure, must communicate that vision to others and be ready to accept the input of others. "Visions that are truly shared take time to emerge. They grow as a by-product of interactions of individual visions." They require "conversation where individuals not only feel free to express their dreams, but learn how to listen to each others' dreams" (1990, pp. 217-218). While Senge links the development of shared vision with the identification of often equally vague organizational mission and core values (1990, pp. 221-222), Alain Gauthier (in Senge, et al, 1994, p. 334) cautions that "unless four or five strategically consequential "chunks of work" are defined and approached, the organization may never achieve much of its vision at all." In other words, effective visions, individual or shared, must cause people to act. Once a compelling vision has emerged, people and the organization must move towards its realization.

Team learning takes place through the practice of a specialized form of conversation called *dialogue*. Dialogue, interpreted from its Greek roots as "meaning flowing through," is distinguished from discussion, which in contrast stems from the Latin *discutere* which meant "to smash to pieces" (1994, p. 353). According to Senge, "in dialogue people become observers of their own thinking" (1990, p. 242). Drawing on the

work of physicist David Bohm (esp. 1980 and 1985), Senge points out that in dialogue, "the whole organizes the parts rather than trying to pull the parts into a whole" (1990, p. 241). Participants explore complex issues from many points of view and must suspend their assumptions while feeling free to communicate those assumptions. Senge sees dialogue as a process of perception and conversation that identifies assumptions, the polarization of opinions, tacit rules for acceptable and unacceptable topics and approaches, and methods for managing differences. More generally, effective team learning is built upon the clarification practices of personal mastery, the reflection and inquiry skills of mental models and the motivation of shared vision. It can, and should, be practiced at all levels of an organization.

Senge considers systems thinking the "cornerstone of the learning organization." In general, it refers to the interconnectivity of, ultimately, all things. It is a "conceptual framework, a body of knowledge and tools...developed over the past fifty years" (1990, p. 7) for recognizing the "systemic structures" which underlie all events, "the key interrelationships that influence behavior over time" (1990, p. 44). In the context of learning organizations, it is "the discipline that integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice" (1990, p. 12). Personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, and team learning are all to be practiced within the framework of organizations as systemic structures. These structures might comprise some of the more familiar components such as managerial hierarchy or work flow processes, but also includes less visible, but no less influential, systems such as perceptions, attitudes, decision making patterns, and communication norms (1994, p. 90).

As a final point on learning organizations, Senge has his own twist on the metaphor of leaders and ships. Whereas the usual association places the ship's "leader" in the role of captain or navigator or helmsman (see my own comments above, p. 83), he sees the leader's true role as that of the *designer*. As he points out, "it is fruitless to be a leader in an organization that is poorly designed" (1990, p. 341). Ultimately, the evolution of learning organizations marks a new focus for organizational leaders, a focus on "*the task of designing the learning processes* whereby people throughout an organization can deal productively with the critical issues they face" [original emphasis] (1990, p. 345).

These three approaches, TQM, Reengineering, and Organizational Learning, bear many similarities to each other as well as certain differences. They all seek to make organizations more viable in the long term, to engage all workers in the process, clarify goals or vision, sharpen processes or systems, and remain open-minded enough to develop new approaches to the changing internal and external environments, in other words, to commit to continuous learning. Regardless of which approach an organization embraces, it is clear that the best chances for survival and success will go to those where all workers are involved in the process, where they recognize the need for continuous learning and are given the opportunity and support to pursue it.

Competencies and Practices:

Depending on the state of a given organization, leadership can focus on maintenance or stabilization, it can favor renewal or revitalization, or it can drive a

program of complete redesign and restructuring. Perhaps, then, the first competency required of organizational leaders is the ability to assess the relationship between stated mission, actual practice or behavior, and market response and conditions. Again, the metaphor of ship's captain comes to mind: attending to the stated destination, to the conditions of the vessel, and to the external currents, whether calm or storm, that influence the ship's progress as well as the passengers' well-being.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) suggest "leaders must pull the organization into the future by creating a positive view of what the organization can become and simultaneously provide emotional support for individuals during the transition process."[10] Based on this, they identify the following abilities as critical to effective leadership. Leaders must:

- Create a motivating vision.
- Mobilize commitment to the vision.
- Support the transition by designing new organizational structures.

Davis (1984) advises that in today's organizations, these are usually accomplished through group leadership or executive teams, not by the dictum of a single individual (p. 8). Still, even with shared responsibility this can be a daunting task. He adds, "capturing the guiding beliefs of an organization in words that are meaningful is an elusive task" (p. 11).

Bolman and Deal (1991) offer another perspective. They recognize that no single approach to leadership will meet all organizational needs. They offer a compelling four-fold model that includes the following categories: structural leadership, human resource leadership, political leadership, and symbolic leadership.[11] Briefly, *structural leaders* develop new models of the relationship between structure, strategy, and environment. They focus on implementation and continually experiment, evaluate and adapt. In

contrast, *human resource leaders* believe in people and communicate that belief. They are visible and accessible, and work to empower others through increased participation, providing support, shared information, and by moving decision making as far down the organization as possible. *Political leaders* assess the distribution of power and interests and build linkages to other stakeholders using persuasion, negotiation, and, only when necessary, coercion. Finally, *symbolic leaders*, also called *transforming leaders* (see Burns, 1978), use symbols to capture attention. They frame and interpret experience often by telling stories. And perhaps most importantly, they identify and communicate a vision.

It is no easy matter to extract competencies from such a spectrum of practices but the authors offer the following:

> Managerial leaders will require high levels of personal artistry to respond to challenge, ambiguity, and paradox. They will need a sense of choice and personal freedom that lets them find new patterns and possibilities in everyday thoughts and deeds. They will need the kind of versatility in thinking that fosters flexibility in action. They will need the capacity to act inconsistently when consistency fails, diplomatically when emotions are raw, non-rationally when reason makes no sense, politically when confronted by parochial self-interests, and playfully when the pursuit of goals and purposes seems counterproductive.[12]

In the end, the most approachable competency may be one offered by Donald N. Michael, professor of planning and public policy at the University of Michigan. In 1973, he described what was then considered a fairly novel competence of *learning*, the importance of which Michael attributed to the changing times. He stated, "I think *we have no choice* but to try to be competent in ways that are appropriate for coping with systemic turbulence, complexity and ambiguity. This means that as persons seeking meaning in our

lives, worthiness in our efforts, we have no choice but to take the risks, and accept the pain, the excitement, and the exhilaration of *becoming learners* [original emphasis]."[13]

Role of CCT:

As Brookfield has noted, "critical thinking comprises two interrelated processes: identifying and challenging assumptions, and imagining and exploring alternatives" (1987, p. 229). At the Stage VI level, this means challenging the assumptions upon which an organization bases its decisions and actions, and it means developing alternatives that help propel the organization towards its future vision. Whether the approach to these assumptions and alternatives is through TQM, Reengineering, or Systems Thinking and the Learning Organization, active cognitive processes at all levels of the organization must accompany any such initiative.

If we accept the suggestion of Kouzes and Posner (1987) that leadership development is self-development, then it must also be cognitive development since the essence of personal development is found in the way one perceives the world, formulates ideas and feelings about those perceptions, and ultimately chooses to act based on those ideas and feelings. And this, after all, describes both the fundamental process of cognition (see Anderson's ACT* model) as well as the foundation of all organizational transformation initiatives.

The relationship between critical and creative thinking skills and the development of business leaders was examined by Robbins (1992).[14] Based on studies conducted by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and the Graduate

Management Admission Council (GMAC) intended to define competency goals for graduates of MBA programs, she identified a positive correlation between the various goals identified by the studies and well known critical and creative attitudes and abilities. "There is a natural fit between the higher-order mode of thinking and what GMAC calls the "messy, concrete reality" of business" (p. 37). Furthermore, she surveyed a significant portion of the literature on leadership and extracted numerous principles that are coincident with the findings of the GMAC and AACSB studies, and critical and creative thinking skills. Some of these principles include:

- capacity for vision
- interdisciplinary frame of reference
- sensitivity to diverse individuals and groups
- integrity/fairness
- capacity for judgement
- attention to consequences
- flexibility and adaptability
- tolerance for ambiguity, complexity, and lack of structure
- positive attitude toward risk.[15]

Given these by-now familiar capacities, there seems little doubt that effective leadership, in both learning and practice, is inherently associated with the skills, dispositions, attitudes and practices of critical and creative thinking.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS

This paper began with the premise that learning programs typically offered by organizations for the purpose of professional development were often poorly conceived and inconsistently implemented. This lack of effective planning was cited as one of the primary reasons for the often disappointing results of such programs. I then proposed a six-stage model offering a structured approach to framing the varied and often overlapping topics and issues encountered by learners. This model also addresses the extensive applicability of critical and creative thinking practices in all stages and thereby points up the practical and universal benefit of improved cognitive skills.

At this point it is fair to address the question, how might this model be useful to organizations? First, it serves as a guide, especially for Human Resource Departments, for developing and implementing the multitude of training and learning programs common to most organizations. As I stated at the outset, most training initiatives fail to yield their intended result, i.e., improved performance. This is due in no small part to poor planning and integration of programs. What I have attempted to identify with the model is that all learning initiatives are related to one another, and therefore must be presented as such. For example, members of a newly formed team (Stage IV) need to have at least some

prior exposure to the learning issues from Stages I, II and III before they can be expected to function effectively in the group. Likewise, a well-intended diversity program (Stage III) will be doomed from the start if learners have not been at least introduced to the self-inquiry principles of Stage I and the basic communication issues of Stage II.

Secondly, it can function as a tool in evaluating problem areas in organizations. For example, if a Sales Division consistently falls short of expectations, we might frame this in a number of ways: 1) as a set of problems associated with the performance and interactions of certain individuals or groups; 2) we may be able to identify the specific problems as communication issues (Stage II); or 3) intercultural misunderstandings or competitiveness (Stage III), or 4) the overbearing behavior of one individual (Stage I). Identifying in this way the contextual manifestation of the problem will help determine what level of learning is needed.

Thirdly, the model as a whole represents a framework for the establishment of a leadership development program. As I discussed in Chapter 7, the skills needed by organizational leaders are many -- very many. Indeed, I would argue that the most effective leaders will have the cumulative skills associated will all six stages, i.e. the ability to operate comfortably in all the various contexts. Accordingly, the development of an individual's leadership skills can be guided by and measured against the framework of the present model.

But the model as presented here is not without its flaws. First it implies a convenient linear path of learning from Stage I to Stage VI. While learning in any discipline has a progressive quality to it, we seldom have the luxury of apprehending

principles and interpreting experiences in a strictly logical manner. Learning is by nature a messy process. The value of the learning model then is not to be found in a strict series of progressive steps but rather as a tool, a guide, for planning the development of workers at all levels. Ideally, learning within an organization must be taking place in all stages at all times. This is one way of working towards the sustainability that so many of today's organizations aspire to.

Another criticism might be that the model studiously avoids technical learning. Its focus falls more convincingly into the area generally referred to as human resource development. There is, of course, a great deal of critical and creative thinking that goes on in highly technical environments. Such thinking is generally task or project oriented and can be highly sophisticated in its particular discipline. Still, I would argue that where there are people, even as few as one, there is reason to give some consideration to the process of thought as well as the object of thought.

Still another interpretation might be that I appear to present this model as a panacea for all organizations, as if to say, "address these issues and all your problems will be solved." I can say unequivocally that this is not my intention, though I do admit to a strong bias in favor of the importance of cultivating and supporting human creative and expressive potential in all its constructive forms. Furthermore, I believe this support can no longer be relegated to traditional educational institutions. The case has clearly been made, here and elsewhere, regarding the growing need for continuous learning in all of life's contexts: self, family, work, community, environment. As the sages of ancient times have told us, and today's quantum physicists are confirming, all things affect all things.

Therefore, changes in any of these contexts will require adjustments in all the others, hence the need for continual learning.

The developmental issues facing organizations today are many and increasing. Speed, complexity and uncertainty are the order of the day and will surely be the dubious legacy from this century to the next. But these developments need not be viewed only as a threat, for they bring with them the seeds of new opportunities and creativity that can meet and fulfill the hopes, needs, and aspirations of people in ways the old staid structures never could. We are at the threshold of an unprecedented opportunity to witness, even nurture, the emergence of new organizational communities that will serve their constituent workers as never before. In these new environments, workers will be challenged with heretofore unimagined responsibilities: to identify problems and challenges facing the business, even the industry; to find, develop or create new resources and opportunities; to make decisions and choices with far-reaching implications; and to communicate at all levels with the utmost effectiveness and shared understanding. The hope is that by meeting these challenges, they will be rewarded with a greater sense of both personal and organizational achievement than could be realized in the any of these old structures.

Now, any individual wishing to meet these challenges must surely use all available faculties. In the midst of this deluge of information, decisions and interpersonal interactions, they must be able to observe, process, interpret, analyze, and create as never before. But above all, the skill that will be most highly valued will be the ability to learn. Dictated by shear necessity, the aptitude for acquiring new skills, adapting to new roles, and embracing new environments will hold sway over the old models of stability,

durability and a kind of determined obstinance that underpinned most business structures through the greater part of this century. In the new workplace, individuals will be valued in proportion to their ability to successfully manifest these flexible skills. Likewise, in the new markets and communities of the world where adaptability and innovation are the order of the day, the ability to continue learning must also be demonstrated at the organizational level. In other words, only individuals and institutions who are ready, willing and able to embrace this charge of constant openness to new possibilities, new solutions, new interpretations, will have any reasonable hope for survival. The opportunities, then, will be found in the chance to experience a degree of both personal and organizational growth that may ultimately yield a higher standard of achievement than anything we have yet known. This achievement may be economic or it may be spiritual, it may be realized individually or communally, but it will only come to those who can stay in sync with the evolving paradigms of organizations as communities, that is, organizations willing to foster the well-being of all those who participate in their growth and development.

APPENDIX

INTERVIEW SUMMARIES

Paul DeFrancesco, Director of Pharmacy Operations
Harvard Pilgrim Health Care, Kenmore Center
December 15, 1996

- Previous experience at HPHC Medford location benefited from a more stable staff so impact of training was greater. Kenmore Center has higher turnover rate and training has been only marginally effective.
- Buy-in from upper management is critical to effective implementation of any training.

Michael Burkhart, Consultant
Elsie Cross Associates
December 21, 1996

- Many companies (i.e., the decision makers) wish to implement diversity initiatives only to satisfy legal considerations, to avoid litigation from discrimination suit.
- During one particular initiative related to diversity in team building, it was necessary to design the initiative in such a way as to address basic communication issues and self-awareness issues.
- His company uses a matrix model that addresses: ideas, beliefs, values and behaviors, relative to the individual, team, organization, and community.

Peter Smith, Consultant
Peter Smith Associates
January 16, 1997

- Leadership issues are pervasive in organizations. Leaders are reluctant to commit the time and resources necessary to ensure success of training transformation.

Sherry Katz, Director of Training
Harvard Pilgrim Health Care, Medford Center
January 21, 1997

- The idea that the effectiveness of organizational transformation is directly related to the degree of planning is "obvious."
- QM program was marginally successful because buy-in from Center leaders was partial at best. The total process was never planned adequately.
- A more recent strategic planning intervention is having greater impact in her center (Medford) because of better planning.

NOTES

Chapter 1. Introduction.

1. Peter M. Senge, et al. The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook. New York: Doubleday. 1994. p. 10.

2. M. G. Brown, D. E. Hitchcock and M. L. Willard. Why TQM Fails and What To Do About It. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin. 1994. p. 215.

3. See for example, David M. Noer, Healing the Wounds: Overcoming the Trauma of Layoffs and Revitalizing Downsized Organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1993.
4. References on the topic of strategic planning abound. A fairly classical approach can be found in the work by George A. Steiner, Strategic Planning: What Every Manager Must Know. New York: The Free Press. 1979. This book also has an extensive bibliography for additional sources.

   The concept of Reengineering burst on the corporate reorganization scene in 1993 with the book by Michael Hammer and James Champy, Reengineering the Corporation: A Manifesto for Business Revolution. New York: HarperBusiness. 1993. Its rather indelicate approach is evidenced in the title itself. Hammer's more recent publication, Beyond Reengineering attempts to soften the tone of his first book which garnered criticism by some.

   The two gurus of TQM are Dr. W. Edwards Demming and Joseph M. Juran. Both had their initial successes introducing TQM principles to manufacturing companies in Japan during the 1950's. US companies woke up only in the 1980's [See Richard J. Schonberger, World Class Manufacturing. New York: The Free Press. 1986.] Both men have numerous articles and books to their credit. Their ideas and lives have been written about extensively by others and the current bibliography on TQM is enormous.

   The Learning Organization has been popularized by the work and writings of Peter Senge. See especially his book, The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization, published in 1990, and its companion The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook in 1994, both by Doubleday of New York. His concepts have caught on worldwide and a not insubstantial industry has sprung up around their promotion, interpretation and implementation.

   See Chapter 7 for a further discussion of each of these initiatives.

5. The efforts of Business for Social Responsibility, a national organization with chapters in all 50 States, have been particularly effective in this regard. See, for example, Alan Reder for The Social Venture Network, Best 75 Business Practices for Socially Responsible Companies, New York: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Putnam Books, 1995. This book groups the efforts of responsible companies according to their focus on the needs of 1) employees, 2) customers and suppliers, 3) community and society-at-large, and 4) the planet.

6. Researchers in Artificial Intelligence (AI) may take issue with this point of view. See, for example, works by such individuals as MIT's Marvin Minsky.

Chapter 2. Stage I: Personal Leadership: Know Thyself.

1. Peter M. Senge. The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization. New York: Currency Doubleday. 1990. p. 142.

2. David Kiersey and Marilyn Bates. Please Understand Me: Character and Temperament Types. Del Mar, CA: Prometheus Nemesis Book Company. 1978. Fifth Edition, 1984. p. 133.

3. Quoted in Senge, et al, 1994, p. 197.

4. Peter Drucker. Management: Tasks, Responsibilities and Practices. New York: Harper & Row. 1974. p. 428.

5. I differentiate between *self-knowledge* and *self-knowing* in the following ways: the former tends to be more factual and static, the latter is more oriented towards understanding and is more dynamic in nature. For example, I am *knowledgeable* about my likes and dislikes, values, beliefs, needs, and so on. Also, I can describe certain patterns of behavior in a factual way: I am very nervous as a public speaker, or I always push my boss to get what I want. Understanding, on the other hand, comes about from a more active engagement with information: my nervousness as a public speaker can vary depending on the audience or my level of comfort with the topic so I will use this information to help develop an approach to such-and-such event that enables me to speak effectively. Or, concerning the boss, I want to improve my relationship with the boss without suppressing all my ideas so I will be more careful about meeting her needs and my interests at the same time.

   A similar approach can be found in Anderson's ACT model of cognition [see for example, John Anderson. The Architecture of Cognition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. 1983]. He refers to *declarative*, or factual knowledge versus *procedural*, or behavioral knowledge.

6. Jill Casner-Lotto. Successful Training Strategies: Twenty-Six Innovative Corporate Models. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1988.

Chapter 3. Stage II: Interpersonal Learning.

1. David A. Keney. Interpersonal Perception: A social Relations Analysis. New York: The Guilford Press. 1994. pp. 175-176.

2. Cartoonist Jerry Marcus.

3. In his book, Interpersonal Communications: Innovations in Instruction, Paul G. Friedman offers an insightful chapter in support of using dyadic interactions for developing effective communication skills. See Chapter 9.

4. This list is essentially taken from: Ronald B. Adler. Communicating at Work: Principles and Practices for Business and the Professions. New York: Random House. 1983. p. 65. I have added the characteristic of *volume* to his list.

5. A very interesting perspective is offered by Hall and Hall: "Few people realize that space is perceived by *all* the senses, not by vision alone. Auditory space is perceived by the ears, thermal space by the skin, kinesthetic space by the muscles, and olfactory space by the nose." [Original italics. No mention of *taste*. TMB]. Edward T. Hall and Mildred Reed Hall. Hidden Differences: Doing Business with the Japanese. New York: Doubleday. 1987. p. 13.

6. Pierre Feyereisen and Jacques-Dominique de Lannoy. Gestures and Speech: Psychological Investigations. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1991. p. 19.

Chapter 4. Stage III: Understanding Cultural Differences.

1. A. P. Carnevale and S. C. Stone. The American Mosaic. New York, McGraw-Hill, Inc, 1995. p. 94.

2. R. Blank and S. Slipp. Voices of Diversity. New York: American Management Association, 1994. p. 6.

3. Ironically, the offending remarks were inadvertently precipitated by a diversity consultant brought in to train some 2100 managers in the exigencies of establishing a harmonious workplace. The consultant used the metaphor of colored jelly beans to convey the idea of varied peoples with varied tastes. Some executives were later

caught making the observation that "black jelly beans stick to the bottom of the bag." See the *Wall Street Journal,* December 4, 1996, Section B, p. 1, column 1.

4. Various researchers cited in: Taylor Cox, Jr. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research & Practice. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers. 1993. p. 3. Similar data reported in: Louise Lamphere (ed). Structuring Diversity: Ethnographic Perspectives on the New Immigration. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1992. p. 10. (Original source: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service).

5. Cited in Kenneth Labich. "Making Diversity Pay." *Fortune*. September 9, 1996. p. 177. Original source unknown.

6. For a useful comparative review of varying international preferences, see: Fons Trompenaars. Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global Business. New York: Irwin Professional Publishers. 1993. He has compiled research from 30 companies spanning 50 countries.

7. Stephen D. Brookfield. Developing Critical Thinkers: Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of Thinking and Acting. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1987. p. 15.

8. For another interesting perspective on our cognitive framing of culture see: Brad Shore. Culture in Mind: Cognition, Culture, and the Problem of Meaning. New York: Oxford University Press. 1996. Esp. Chapter 2, "Rethinking Cultures as Models." pp. 42-71.

9. Wayne W. Reeves. Cognition and Complexity: The Cognitive Science of Managing Complexity. Lanham, MD. The Scarecrow Press. 1996. p. 57.

Chapter 5. Stage IV: Team Development: Participating in Shared Purpose.

1. Peter M. Senge. (1990). The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization. New York: Doubleday. pp. 234-235.

2. David R. Seibold. "Developing the 'Team' in a Team-Managed Organization: Group Facilitation in a New-Design Plant." In Lawrence R. Frey (Ed.). Innovations in Group Facilitation: Applications in National Settings. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press. 1995. pp. 282-298.

3. B. Aubrey Fisher. Small Group Decision Making: Communication and the Group Process. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1993. p. 45.

4. There can also be a number of sub-groups in operation at any time. One fairly recent theory developed by Bales (1984, 1985) is called SYMLOG, for A System for the Multiple Level Observation of Groups. This theory assumes that all interpersonal behavior can be understood in terms of a three dimensional space, where the three dimensions are Upward-Downward (Dominance vs. Submission), Positive-Negative, and Forward-Backward (Task oriented and conforming vs. Expressive and anticonforming). These dimensions have been used in the analysis of the relationship of individuals to the group and its subgroups, and the relationships of subgroups to each other.

5. For example, "according to Abbey (1982), the early development of many small groups is marked by conflict manifest in the formation of two subgroups, one of which tries to stick to plans and the other of which 'seeks novelty and spontaneity.'" [Cited in, Herbert H. Blumberg. "Cooperation, Competition, and Conflict Resolution." In Paul A. Hare, et al. Small Group Research: A Handbook. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation. 1984. p. 222.]

6. See Fisher, 1980, p. 177 for a list of the most common roles taken up by group members.

7. See for example: Fran Rees. How to Lead Work Teams: Facilitation Skills. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer& Company. 1991.

8. Further discussion of each of these models can be found in Fisher, 1980, pp. 133-144.

9. Thomas H. Patten, Jr. Organizational Development Through Team building. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1981. p. 262.

10. For the first U.S. edition, see: Edward de Bono. Six Thinking Hats. New York: Little, Brown & Company. 1985.

11. See pages 132-146.

12. Paul A. Hare and Valerie M. Kent. "Leadership." In Paul A. Hare, et al. Small Group Research: A Handbook. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation. 1994. p. 166.

13. Richard Paul. Critical Thinking: How to Prepare Students for a Rapidly Changing World. p. 423.

14. Roger Schank. The Creative Attitude: Learning to Ask and Answer the Right Questions. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company. 1988. p. 19.

15. Edward de Bono. Lateral Thinking. New York: Penguin Books.

16. Adapted from Schank, 1988, pp. 349-362.

Chapter 6. Stage V: Management Practices: Empowering Self and Others

1. R. W. Revans. Management academic and writer, United Kingdom. Quoted in, Ray Wild. How to Manage. New York: Facts on File Publications. 1985. p. 39.

2. James Champy. Reengineering Management. New York: Harper Business. 1995. p. 3.

3. From a presentation be Peter Thigpen, Senior VP of Manufacturing at Levi-Strauss, at the Stanford School of Business, February 26, 1991. Quoted in, Jeffrey Pfeffer. Competitive Advantage Through People: Understanding the Power of the Workforce. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press. 1994. p. 58.

4. The three traditional schools of thought are: 1) classical management theory, with Frederick. W. Taylor (1856-1915) the main proponent of the scientific management perspective and Henri Fayol (1841-1925) the main primary representative of the classical organization theory perspective; 2) behavioral management, as described by Elton Mayo (1880-1949), Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) and Douglas MacGregor (1906-1924); and 3) management science (not to be confused with Taylor's scientific management), primarily a mathematical approach (Koontz, 1986) with no outstanding spokesperson.

   More recent approaches include a renewal of systems theories, represented, for example, by Peter Senge (1990), and Theory Z as described by William Ouchi (1981), the latter approach being a kind of consolidation of traditional American and traditional Japanese management practices.

5. Others (see, for example, Griffin, 1986) include staffing under the function of organizing.

6. Champy, p. 7.

7. Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt. "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern." *Harvard Business Review*. March-April, 1958. pp. 95-101.

8. Paul Hersey. The Situational Leader. Escondido, CA: Center for Leadership Studies. 1984.

9. Charles J. Fombrun, Noel M. Tichy and Mary Anne DeVanna. Strategic Human Resource Management. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1984. p. 68.

10. James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It, Why People Demand It. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1993. p. 1.

11. James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. The Leadership Challenge: How the Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1987. p. 298.

12. Frank Finch. Encyclopedia of Management Techniques. New York: Facts on File Publications. 1985. p. vii.

13. Roger Peters. Practical Intelligence: Working Smarter in Business and Everyday Life. New York: Harper & Row Publishers. 1987. See especially pp. 241-305.

14. Stephen D. Brookfield. Developing Critical Thinkers: Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of Thinking and Acting. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1987. p. 43.

Chapter 7: Stage VI: The Art and Practice of Organizational Leadership.

1. Harlan Cleveland. The Knowledge Executive: Leadership in an Information Society. New York: Truman Talley Books. 1985. pp. xv-xvi.

2. James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. 1987. p. xxi.

3. Stanley M. Davis. Managing Corporate Culture. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Company. 1984. p. 7.

4. Michael Hammer. Beyond Reengineering: How the Process-Centered Organization Is Changing Our Work and Our Lives. New York: Harper Business. 1996. pp. 206-208.

5. Lee G. Bolman and Terrance E. Deal. Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1991. p. 446.

6. James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. 1987. p. 300.

7. The summary of TQM was adapted from the following: Robert L. Flood. Beyond TQM. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1993. Warren H. Schmidt and Jerome P. Finnigan. TQManager: A Practical Guide for Managing in a Total Quality Organization. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1993.

8. It is interesting to note that whereas Hammer and Champy initially consider these processes to be necessarily related to physical events, or tasks (see also Hammer 1996), Champy appears to acquiesce somewhat in his 1995 book Reengineering Management. In it he describes five management processes that are potential candidates for reengineering. These include: mobilizing, enabling, defining, measuring, and communicating. One is reminded of the more traditional functions of management: planning, organizing, controlling and leading. In any event, Champy concedes that "we may need more discipline to do management process reengineering than operational process reengineering" (1995, p. 148).

9. Noel M. Tichy and Mary Anne DeVanna. The Transitional Leader. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1986. p. 28.

10. They convincingly distinguish themselves from the popular and somewhat simplistic version of situational leadership presented by Hersey (1984) and Hersey and Blanchard (1977). See pp. 403-445.

11. Lee G. Bolman and Terrance E. Deal. 1991. p. 446.

12. In James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. 1993. p. 272.

13. Jane Robbins. Restructuring MBA Programs for Leadership Development: Critical and Creative Thinking as a Strategic Framework. A Thesis. Boston, MA: University of Massachusetts at Boston. 1992.

14. This list is adapted from Robbins' more extensive compilation. See esp. her tables on pp. 41 and 42.

REFERENCES

Adler, Ronald B. (1983). Communicating at Work: Principles and Practices for Business and the Professions. New York: Random House.

Anderson, John R. (1983). The Architecture of Cognition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Argyris, Chris and Schon, Donald. (1978). Organizational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Beckhard, R. and Harris, R. T. (1977). Organizational Transitions: Managing Complex Change. Philippines: Addison-Welsley.

Blank, R. and Slipp, S. (1994). Voices of Diversity. New York: American Management Association.

Block, Peter. (1993). Stewardship: Choosing Service Over Self-Interest. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Bolman, Lee G. and Deal, Terrance E. (1991). Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. 1991. p. 446.

Brookfield, Stephen D. (1987). Developing Critical Thinkers: Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of Thinking and Acting. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Brown., M. G., Hitchcock, D. E. and Willard, M. L. (1994). Why TQM Fails and What To Do About It. New York: Irwin.

Carnevale, A. P. and Stone, S. C. (1995). The American Mosaic. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Casner-Lotto, Jill. (1988). Successful Training Strategies: Twenty-Six Innovative Corporate Models. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Champy, James. (1995). Reengineering Management. New York: Harper Business.

Cleveland, Harlan. (1985). The Knowledge Executive: Leadership in an Information Society. New York: Truman Talley Books.

Cook, K. J. (1994). AMA Complete Guide to Strategic Planning for Small Business. Chicago: NTC Business Books.

Covey, Stephen R. (1990). Principle-Centered Leadership. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Cox, Taylor, Jr. (1993). Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research & Practice. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Davis, Stanley M. (1984). Managing Corporate Culture. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Company.

De Bono, Edward. (1973). PO: Beyond Yes and No. New York: Pelican Books.

De Bono, Edward. (1985). Six Thinking Hats. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

De Bono, Edward. (1992). Serious Creativity. New York: Harper Business.

Drucker, Peter. (1974). Management: Tasks, Responsibilities and Practices. New York: Harper & Row.

Feyereisen, Pierre and de Lannoy, Jacques-Dominique. (1991). Gestures and Speech: Psychological Investigations. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Finch, Frank. (1985). Encyclopedia of Management Techniques. New York: Facts on File Publications.

Fisher, B. Aubrey. (1993). Small Group Decision Making: Communication and the Group Process. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Flood, Robert L. (1993). Beyond TQM. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Fombrun, Charles J., Tichy, Noel M. and DeVanna, Mary Anne. (1984). Strategic Human Resource Management. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Gardner, Howard. (1983). Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences. New York: BasicBooks.

Gardner, Howard. (1993). Multiple Intelligences: The Theory in Practice. New York: BasicBooks.

Gardner, Howard. (1993). Creating Minds: An Anatomy of Creativity. New York: BasicBooks.

Goleman, Daniel. (1995). Emotional Intelligence. New York: Bantam Books.

Hall, Edward T. and Hall, Mildred Reed. (1987). Hidden Differences: Doing Business with the Japanese. New York: Doubleday.

Hamel, Gary and Prahalad, C. K. (1994). Competing for the Future. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Hammer, Michael. (1996). Beyond Reengineering: How the Process-Centered Organization Is Changing Our Work and Our Lives. New York: Harper Business.

Hammer, Michael. & Champy, James. (1993). Reengineering the Corporation: A Manifesto for Business Revolution. New York: Harper Collins.

Hare, Paul A., et al. (1984). Small Group Research: A Handbook. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Herrmann, Ned. (1988). The Creative Brain. Lake Lure, NC: Brain Books.

Hersey, Paul. (1984). The Situational Leader. Escondido, CA: Center for Leadership Studies.

Ishikawa, K. (1985). What is Total Quality Control? The Japanese Way. (D. J. Lu, Trans.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. (Original work published in 1981).

Keney, David A. (1994). Interpersonal Perception: A social Relations Analysis. New York: The Guilford Press.

Kiersey, David and Bates, Marilyn. (1978. Fifth Edition, 1984). Please Understand Me: Character and Temperment Types. Del Mar, CA: Prometheus Nemesis Book Company.

Kotter, John P. (1996). Leading Change. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kouzes, James M. and Posner, Barry Z. (1993). Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It, Why People Demand It. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Kouzes, James M. and Posner, Barry Z. (1987). The Leadership Challenge: How the Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Labich, Kenneth. "Making Diversity Pay." *Fortune*. September 9, 1996. p. 177.

Lamphere, Louise (ed). (1992). Structuring Diversity: Ethnographic Perspectives on the New Immigration. Chigago: University of Chicago Press.

Leavitt, H. J. (1964). "Applied Organizational Change in Industry: Structural, Technical and Human Approaches." in Cooper, W. W., Leavitt, H. J. and Shelley, M. W. (eds). New Perspectives in Organizational Research. New York: Wiley, pp. 53-71.

Lippitt, G, and Lippitt, R. (1986). The Consulting Process in Action. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Miller, George A. (1956). "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity to Process Information." *Psychological Review*. v. 63. pp. 81-97.

Mink, O. G., Mink, B. P. and Owen, K. Q. (1987). Groups at Work. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

Murphy, Lawrence R. and Schoenborn, Theodore F. (1987). Stress Management in Work Settings. United States Department of Health and Human Services. Pub. No. 87-111.

Noer, David M. (1993). Healing the Wounds: Overcoming the Trauma of Layoffs and Revitalizing Downsized Organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Patten, Thomas H., Jr. (1981). Organizational Development Through Team Building. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Paul, Richard. (1993). Critical Thinking: How to Prepare Students for Rapidly Changing World. Santa Rosa, CA: Foundation for Critical Thinking.

Peters, Roger. (1987). Practical Intelligence: Working Smarter in Business and Everyday Life. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Peters, Tom. & Waterman, Robert, Jr. (1982). In Search of Excellence. New York: Warner Books.

Peters, Tom. & Austin, Nancy. (1985). A Passion for Excellence. New York: Random House.

Pfeffer, Jeffrey. (1994). Competitive Advantage Through People: Understanding the Power of the Workforce. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Pfeiffer, J. W. (Ed.). (1986). Strategic Planning: Selected Readings. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Reder, Alan, for The Social Venture Network. (1995). Best 75 Business Practices for Socially Responsible Companies. New York: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Putnam Books.

Rees, Fran. (1991). How to Lead Work Teams: Facilitation Skills. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer& Company.

Reeves, Wayne W. (1996). Cognition and Complexity: The Cognitive Science of Managing Complexity. Lanham, MD. The Scarecrow Press.

Robbins, Jane. (1992). Restructuring MBA Programs for Leadership Development: Critical and Creative Thinking as a Strategic Framework. A Thesis. Boston, MA: University of Massachusetts at Boston. 1992.

Schonberger, Richard J. (1986). World Class Manufacturing. New York: The Free Press.

Senge, Peter. M. (1990). The Fifth Discipline: The Art & Practice of the Learning Organization. New York: Doubleday.

Senge, Peter. M., et al. (Eds.). (1994). The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook: Strategies and Tools for Building a Learning Organization. New York: Doubleday.

Schank, Roger. (1988). The Creative Attitude: Learning to Ask and Answer the Right Questions. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.

Schmidt, Warren H. and Finnigan, Jerome P. (1993). TQManager: A Practical Guide for Managing in a Total Quality Organization. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Schwarz, R. (1994). The Skilled Facilitator: Practical Wisdom for Developing Effective Groups. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Seibold, David R. "Developing the 'Team' in a Team-Managed Organization: Group Facilitation in a New-Design Plant." In Frey, Lawrence R. (ed.). (1995). Innovations in Group Facilitation: Applications in National Settings. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Shore, Brad. (1996). Culture in Mind: Cognition, Culture, and the Problem of Meaning. New York: Oxford University Press.

Steiner, George A. (1979). Strategic Planning: What Every Manager Must Know. New York: The Free Press.

Tannenbaum, Robert and Schmidt, Warren H. "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern." *Harvard Business Review*. March-April, 1958. pp. 95-101.

Tichy, Noel M. and DeVanna, Mary Anne. (1986). The Transitional Leader. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1986.

Tobin, Daniel. R. (1993). Re-Educating the Corporation: Foundations for the Learning Organization. Essex Junction, VT: Oliver Wright.

Trompenaars, Fons. (1993). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global Business. New York: Irwin Professional Publishers.

Weaver, C. N. (1991). TQM: A Step-by-Step Guide to Implementation. Milwaukee, WI: Quality Press.

Wheatley, Margaret J. (1992). Leadership and the New Science: Learning About Organization from an Orderly Universe. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Wild, Ray. (1985). How to Manage. New York: Facts on File Publications.

Zenger, J. H., et al. (1994). Leading Teams: Mastering the New Role. New York: Irwin.